The Language Experience Approach in Second Language Learning with Particular Reference to Early Secondary Schooling in Hong Kong

by

Anne Ma LO

Thesis submitted for the Ph.D Degree in the School of Education, University of Durham, England.

March 1995

Dedicated to Mum,

who started language experience approach with me.

ABSTRACT

The Language Experience Approach in Second Language Learning with Particular Reference to Early Secondary Schooling in Hong Kong

Anne Ma LO

This study explores the feasibility of using the Language Experience Approach (LEA) in the learning of English as a second language in Hong Kong.

A review of the problems of English language learning in Hong Kong is made. It is argued that the first year students in Hong Kong secondary schools face the greatest difficulty in learning English as most of them have to adjust to the abrupt change from learning English as a subject in primary school to learning most subjects in English in secondary school. There is an urgent need to improve the teaching of English to this group of students.

The foundations and past research of LEA as a reading approach are outlined. The basic premise of the approach is to make use of the language and experience wealth of the readers so that the personal experiences elicited from them orally are recorded as personal reading materials. It integrates reading with the other language skills and possesses the potential to start from where the learners are and make language learning meaningful, creative and personal. Past research suggests that the approach was mostly applied to first language classrooms and presumes the learners have the ability to express themselves orally.

The study attempts to establish a theoretical basis for extending the approach to a wider range of learners, in this case second language learners. This is done firstly by exploring the basic principles of second language learning and comparing them to that of LEA. It is shown that there is a strong theoretical ground for the approach to be extended to second language learners. The relationship between oral and written language is then discussed and it is argued that oral language is not necessarily the prerequisite for written language, especially for those learning English in a foreign language context.

With the theoretical basis established, an LEA programme for second language learning, termed 2L-LEA is proposed. A case study in the form of action research was carried out as an initial attempt to explore the practical feasibility of 2L-LEA activities among 2 groups (about 20 students each) of lower secondary students in Hong Kong. The findings show that students' reaction to the activities was encouraging. Students of different oral competence in English were able to participate in the 2L-LEA activities. Their interest in English lessons had increased and their writing became richer in content. 2L-LEA also proved to be theoretically and technically feasible to supplement the secondary one English curriculum in Hong Kong classrooms. Limitations of the study and implications for further research are also discussed.

DECLARATION

"The thesis is the work of the author alone, and no part of it has previously been submitted for a degree at any university."

COPYRIGHT

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

How can words fully express my heartfelt thanks to those who have, at different stages of my life's journey, guided, inspired, accepted and supported me, so that I can learn to become?

It is indeed my greatest privilege to be supervised by two well experienced and knowledgeable scholars -- Prof. Mike Byram and Mr. Jack Gilliland, whose experience in research, complementary characters and specialized interests in second/foreign language teaching and language experience approach respectively, have greatly enriched my study and allowed me to consider issues arising from the study in a wider perspective. To be more precise, I am grateful to Dr. Byram for his very insightful comments, down-to-earth suggestions, prompt responses, composure, understanding and encouragement throughout my study; and I enjoy especially the rapport shared with him. I would also like to thank Mr. Gilliland for his far-sighted views, thought-provoking questions and open-mindedness which led me to new angles of thoughts; and I am particularly indebted to his opening my eyes to the language experience approach and the help he gave in formulating my thoughts as I decided to venture this study.

Special thanks also go to Mr. Peter Grundy of the English Department for kindly inviting me to attend the M.A. Applied Linguistics sessions related to practical classroom English teaching, from which I was much inspired by different lecturers specializing in various fields and techniques.

Thanks are also extended to the Methodist Church Overseas Division for the financial support I received during the first year of my study in Britain, and to True light Middle School of Hong Kong for reserving my teaching post while I was away for my study, for letting me try out the proposed 2L-LEA activities in school and collect data necessary for my research. Of course, the groups of students in both the pilot study and the main study were always stimulating my thinking and giving me the most encouraging feedback all the time. Without the support of these people, I would not be able to undertake the present study smoothly.

During my study in Durham, I enjoyed very much the environment and facilities of study provided by the city and the university. The library staff were particular friendly and helpful in my search for literature. I am also fortunate to have many nice and sincere friends to support and brighten up the long and lonely days of research work. I am especially thankful to Dr. Wing-On Lee for sharing with me the materials he collected about Hong Kong.

I would also like to extend my appreciation to my colleagues at the Institute of Language in Education for being so understanding and helpful while I was writing my thesis. I am

particular indebted to both Dr. John Clark and Dr. Gertrude Tinker-Sachs for reading manuscripts of my work, offering insighful comments and giving me constant boosts of morale.

Sincere thanks are extended to Dr. Frederick K.S. Leung at the Faculty of Education, University of Hong Kong, for his valuable suggestions especially on Chapter Six. I would also like to thank Miss Sally W.W. Leung for her efficient and careful help with tedious work such as formatting and editing the notes, appendices, and bibliography of my thesis, and printing the final draft.

The two families -- the Ma's and the Lo's -- to which I belong are the source of unfailing love, understanding and support. It is from them that I learn to love and to extend this love to the next generation -- the students I teach. Further, I must admit that the completion of the present study is to a large extent rendered by my husband, Lung Kwong, who is the driving force behind me. His inquisitive and serious attitude to his own work and study, his willingness to listen to and discuss with me issues related to my study, and his constant love and encouragement, help me break through many of my own weaknesses. Last but not least, my love goes to Kinling, our daughter, for taking away the worries and exhaustion of my day's work.

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

INTRODUCTION

I can still recall an experience in my early childhood which had a lasting effect in developing in me a positive attitude towards reading and writing. When I was about six years old, my mother encouraged me to keep a diary in which I put down things I did in a day and the thoughts that were in my mind. When I came to words that I did not know how to write, I sought help from my mother and my brother who was three years older than I. I read my diary to my mother every day. There were two occasions when she found that I had written quite well that she posted my work to the children's column of a newspaper and got them published. There was also a special arrangement with a children's radio programme that once a child's work was accepted by the newspaper, he/she would also be invited to read his/her work in the programme. I was very proud of having my works published and reading them on the air. I also received a great deal of encouragement from my parents and teachers and was therefore very much motivated to continue writing and also reading the work of other children in the newspaper. Since then, reading and writing have always been something I enjoy doing.

A few years ago, I had the opportunity to learn about the Language Experience Approach (hereafter referred to as LEA) in my M.A. programme. The idea of having students write down their own experience or stories and getting them printed as their reading materials fascinated me and reminded me of my childhood experience. Of course, my mother knew nothing about the approach. What she did was just out of her desire to cultivate an interest in me to read and write.

Having been an English teacher in a secondary school of Hong Kong for nearly 10 years, I am aware of the little joy and great frustration experienced by many students learning English as their

second language. Students rarely find English relevant to their lives and experience. English is learned very much as a "book" and "exam" language. The very unique sociolinguistic situation of the city as a British colony and the government's non-directive language policy in education over the decades have made the learning of English very instrumental (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) in nature. The problem is complicated by the change of language of instruction from Chinese in most primary schools to English in most secondary schools. Most first year students in the secondary school have to go through this traumatic transition and the educational and psychological effects of this on students have been widely discussed in the colony for decades (e.g. Kvan, 1969; Cheng et al., 1973; Ripple et al., 1984). In recent years, with the pending change in the political status of Hong Kong together with the Llewellyn Report (1982) and the subsequent Education Commission Reports (Hong Kong Government, 1984a, 1986a, 1990), there are new changes in the language policy of the government. It is time for innovation to be introduced to the English curriculum of schools so that the language can be learned more meaningfully and effectively, without any detrimental effect to the students' educational or psychological development. Therefore the central issue in this study is to focus on the conceptual and educational problems surrounding the learning of English in Hong Kong and to offer an alternative approach to improve the situation.

LEA, which uses the students' own experiences and interests as starting points to their reading instruction, and indeed to an integrative language development in speaking, listening, writing and reading skills (Lee & Allen, 1963; Stauffer, 1980; Hall, 1981) is an approach which has the potential to lead students through a transitional stage from the known to the unknown, and bring meaning and relevance to the students' learning of English in Hong Kong. Moreover, the student-centred and humanistic orientation of the approach to learning is something that is needed to balance the competitive and utilitarian orientation of the education system and

the society of Hong Kong as a whole. Nevertheless, there are foreseeable problems in adapting this approach to the Secondary one students in Hong Kong because (1) it has been used mainly for elementary school children learning to read in their first language; and (2) it assumes that children are able to express themselves orally. There is, therefore, the need to examine the approach in greater detail to understand the basic foundations of the approach and to explore whether the approach is applicable to a wider range of learners, in this case, secondary level students and second language learners, especially those whose oral language proficiency in the second language is limited.

The reasons for undertaking the present study are as follows: (1) to identify the potentials of LEA for second language learners; (2) to propose a 2L-LEA programme for the Hong Kong context; and (3) to explore the feasibility for using such a programme for a group of secondary one students in Hong Kong.

In the first chapter, the socio-cultural background, language situation, bilingual education situation, and problems of English learning in Hong Kong will be discussed. First year students in secondary schools are the target group and areas in the English curriculum where there is a need for change will be identified. In the second chapter, LEA as a method of reading instruction will be examined, with its early foundations and previous studies being scrutinized. Special attention will be paid to the studies using the approach with learners at secondary school level and those who are second language learners.

The conclusions and implications of the first two chapters will lead to the third chapter, the backbone of the study, which attempts to establish a theoretical basis for LEA to be used for second language learners, especially those learning English in a foreign language context. Both first and second language learning theories will be reviewed and the question of whether oral language

should be a prerequisite for second language learners receiving LEA will also be discussed.

The fourth chapter is a chapter of synthesis. The principles and pedagogical implications of a Second Language - Language Experience Approach (2L-LEA) will be developed by synthesizing the basic premises of the conventional LEA and the generalizations drawn from theories of second language learning.

A proposal for a 2L-LEA programme is then made in Chapter five, taking into consideration the actual school context in Hong Kong.

Chapter six is a report of an action research study on the implementation of a 2L-LEA programme with a group of secondary one students in Hong Kong. The methodology of the study, the procedures, the findings, and the limitations of the study will be discussed. The strengths and weaknesses of the programme in meeting the areas of English curriculum that need change for the target group of this study will be discussed in the concluding chapter. Suggestions for further research will also be made.

Before the study proceeds, a few clarifications of the usage of terms need to be made. The use of the pronoun `he' for student/learner/reader/child and `she' for teacher is by no means sexist, but simply a way to avoid the awkwardness of the dual pronoun of `he or she'. The following are definitions of certain terms which appear at various stages of the study and the thinking behind the use of them:

Language Learning and Language Acquisition

Many linguists use these two terms, language learning and language acquisition, interchangeably without making any distinction. Krashen (1985) however, makes a strong argument that

there is a fundamental difference between the two with the former referring to a conscious process and the learner being aware of the rules of the language and the latter referring to a subconscious process similar to that of first language development. The basis of this notion of acquisition is built on Chomsky's central thesis that we are innately equipped with knowledge about what human language is like (Chomsky, 1980).

In this study, an attempt is not made to distinguish between `language acquisition' and `language learning' in the way Krashen does except when quoting or referring to his theory. Empirically, no evidence has been found which shows that any connection exists between these two modes of learning. It is quite probable that they `bleed' into one another (Stevik, 1980). The view taken is that language acquisition and language learning are not separable, and are all embodied in the process of language learning, though they may have different emphasis. Therefore, `language learning' will be used in a general sense to include both conscious and subconscious learning.

However, the word `acquisition' will be specifically used to refer to the development of language fluency naturally without any classroom instruction in the language.

English as a second language and English as a foreign language

Broughton et. al. (1978, p.6) distinguish `English as a second language' from `English as a foreign language' by saying that in a second language situation, English is the dominant language in the society. It is the language of the mass media, of official institutions (of law courts, local and central government) and of education. It is also the language of commercial and industrial organizations. In other words, a good command of English in a second language situation is the passport to social and economic

advancement, and the successful use of the appropriate variety of English identifies the user as a successful, integrated member of the language community. On the other hand, in situations where English is a foreign language, English is taught in schools, but does not play an essential role in national or social life.

However, in this study, a further distinction is made to distinguish English as a second language in a `host language context' and English as a second language in a `foreign language context'. The distinction is needed because even if a language plays an essential role in the official institutions and of education of a place, it does not necessarily mean that it is the language used for everyday communication by the general public. As the purpose of a language is to communicate, the term `English as a second language in a host language context' is used to refer to an environment where English is the mother tongue of the majority of the population, and that it is the language of communication in the society in both its oral and written forms; whereas `English as a second language in a foreign language context' is used to refer to an environment where English is not the mother tongue of the majority of the population, nor is it used in the everyday social communication of the people, despite the fact that it plays an essential role in official institutions and of education.

Chapter One

The English Language Learning Situation in Hong Kong

I.1 Hong Kong: East Meets West

I.1.1 General Background

Hong Kong, with a land area of only 1060 sq. km., is geographically and historically part of China. It was at the southern end of the Guangdong Province (Canton) and was ceded to Britain in 1842[1] as a colony and has since then been governed under British rule.

Owing to its special political status and its good geographical position -- a deep harbour on the southern coast of China as well as midway in S.E. Asia, it has become a good port for trade and a meeting point of East and West. Hong Kong has always played the role of a window to China, because the government of the People's Republic of China has, since its founding, advocated the national independence and territorial integrity of China. Hong Kong is thus an entrepot of both goods and information to and from China. After the Open Door Policy of China in the late 1970's, Hong Kong has still been a major source of income and commercial intelligence of western technology to China and contributes in various ways to China's pursuit of its four modernization programmes[2] (Cheng, 1986).

On this small piece of land, there live 5.9 million people -- the figure at the end of 1993 (Hong Kong Government, 1993), 98% of which are ethnic Chinese. Hence, it has a higher ethnic homogeneity than most British cities (Gibbons, 1982). In the past 3 decades, the average increase of population ranged from 1.3 % to 2.4 % per year (Hong Kong Government, 1991). The fluctuation in the percentage of population increase is not affected by the birth

rate, but the inflow of immigrants and refugees from China and Vietnam; and recently, the outflow of emigrants. Therefore, amongst the population, only around 60% of them were born in Hong Kong (Hong Kong Government, 1993).

The large number of immigrants and refugees in the 1950s brought with them skill, capital and labour. These together with the personal freedom, the `non-interventionist' public policies and the economic laissez-faire policy, promoted investment and economic growth (Brown, 1971; Mok, 1981). Today, Hong Kong has become a "unique and highly successful commercial conglomerate at the centre of world trade routes, with manufacturing and banking interests predominant" (Llewellyn et al. 1982, p.9; see also Hong Kong Government, 1993, p.41, 61, & 71).

As a thriving metropolis, Hong Kong is not without its problems. The rapid growth of population on the small piece of land creates problems of overcrowding. The fast moving and crowded life style affects the quality of interpersonal relationships; and materialism and competitiveness are becoming more and more obvious. The keen competition which characterized the capitalist society is also mirrored in an educational system that lays great emphasis on hard work and success in examinations.

Stepping into the 1980s, Hong Kong is facing a serious new challenge in every respect. The Sino-British Joint Declaration on the future of Hong Kong was signed in December 1984. It is clear that China will resume the exercise of sovereignty over Hong Kong and its administration in 1997. Therefore, the remaining years before 1997 is a period for Hong Kong to transform from a colony to an autonomous Special Administrative Region (SAR) under Chinese sovereignty according to the principle of `one country, two systems' (Hong Kong Government, 1984c). How Hong Kong can undergo its change of political status and at the same time maintain its stability and prosperity is the challenge that is to be faced.

I.1.2 Socio-cultural Background

Hong Kong, though sometimes described as a melting pot of east and west, is more precisely a meeting point of east and west. This is because "coexisting with a socio-technical-economic infrastructure typical of industrial societies are strong and persistent traditional normative patterns" (Chaney & Podmore, 1973, p.2). The coexisting duality in the socio-cultural situation of Hong Kong is discussed below.

Hong Kong is to a large extent, a Chinese society. Although it was ceded to Britain as a colony, it is very much part of China to the Chinese in both Hong Kong and China. The people in Hong Kong see themselves as Chinese more than "Hong Kongese", and never "British" (though this is the status of nationality given to citizens of the British dependent territories). An explanation for this is the deep-rooted belief of the Chinese in "the unity of the empire (the "Middle Kingdom"), and its superiority to others" (Fairbank, 1971, p.89). Thus there is still a strong sense of identification with Chinese culture and civilization among the Chinese in Hong Kong.

The relationship between China and the West has not been in real harmony in the past two centuries. Western presence in China has been associated with gunpowder and war ships. The series of invasions, the Opium War, the opening of treaty ports, the concession for special privileges and the ceding of colonies in the late nineteenth century, brought a feeling of contempt and hatred among the Chinese towards the westerners. In Hong Kong, people in general have ambivalent attitudes towards western civilization and towards English-speaking people. This is invariably a result of the cultural and historical factors, and also the association of English-speaking people in Hong Kong with power, money, privileges and the high rank posts in the government departments (see discussion of the Chinese students' attitudes towards English

speaking people as revealed in the study of Fu, 1975 and Pierson et al., 1980).

In spite of the great pride and respect of the people in Hong Kong for the Chinese cultural heritage, they are at the same time very pragmatic. This can be seen from the quick pursuit of trading opportunities with the west, trends in western fashion, food, music, electronic gadgets, and the almost sacred importance given to English in the society (Fu, 1975). It is identified by Lee (1974) in a study of Hong Kong adolescents that the young generation in Hong Kong in general identify with Chinese culture and tradition, but also adopt a bi-cultural outlook and style of living. To quote the words of Jarvie & Agassi (1969, p.148), "Hong Kong is flexibly westernized at the superficial level and stubbornly Chinese underneath."

I.1.3 Summary

Hong Kong is shaped by historical and political factors to be a place where east meets west. Owing to its strategic position to China and to the West, together with many other geographical and economic factors,it has grown into a metropolitan city with its industrial, monetary and economic development, comparable to other great cities of the world. But as far as the population is concerned, they are mainly Chinese in ethnicity, and there exists a strong identification with the Chinese culture and civilization in spite of many signs of westernization at the superficial level. Therefore, there are characteristics of duality in Hong Kong, which can also be reflected in the language situation of Hong Kong.

I.2 The Language Situation

I.2.1 Languages of the People

Against the background described earlier, the language situation in Hong Kong is a complex one. Hong Kong is predominantly a monolingual society. According to the data gathered by Gibbons (1987) (see also Cheng, 1984), Cantonese is the usual language of 88% of the population. This is because most people have their origins in the Guangdong province, and Cantonese is a variety of Chinese widely spoken in this area, especially in Guangzhou -- one of the largest Chinese cities in the immediate vicinity of Hong Kong.[3] Speakers of other Chinese dialects (e.g. Hakka, Szeyap, Chiuchow, Hokkien, Shanghainese etc.) form 10.29% of the population, and speakers of English as their usual language make up 1.04%. Nevertheless, there are 25% of the non-native English speakers who claim the ability to use English, of which 30% are men and 20% women. Their ability may, of course, range from proficient to marginal.

Although Cantonese is the usual language in Hong Kong, it is not the language for writing. As far as `written Chinese' is concerned, there is only one `proper' form which follows the rules of the national standard Chinese or Putonghua (also known as Mandarin), which used to be the variety of Chinese widely spoken in the northern part of China[4] (Chao, 1968). Written Chinese is different in vocabulary, grammar, lexis and style from Cantonese. As a result, it is in a way a second language to children with Cantonese as their mother tongue..

As far as English is concerned, although it is the everyday language of only around 1% of the population, 70% of the people claim to be able to understand it (Hong Kong Government, 1994, p.10). Hunter (1974) points out that unlike the second language situation in India, Singapore or Kenya, Hong Kong does not have a

local norm of the language as there is no societal basis for `indigenization' or `nativization' of English in Hong Kong. Nevertheless, the English spoken by Chinese does run along a continuum of heavily Cantonese influenced variants to standard British or American English according to such factors as educational background, work experience, personal motivation and opportunity. Gibbons also finds from a case study that among the typical academics of the colony (the students of the University of Hong Kong), there is a MIX competence, which involves the mixing of codes of both Cantonese and English at the phonological and syntactic levels (Gibbons, 1987). This can be regarded as a distinctive feature of the language used by a particular strata of the population for reasons such as a sign of membership, referring to specialized registers or substituting terms with strong affective meaning.

With the existence of spoken Cantonese, written Chinese and English, the language situation in Hong Kong can be understood as `trilingual' (Llewellyn, 1982; Liu, 1987). However, as the term `Chinese' is commonly applied in Hong Kong to mean both spoken Cantonese and written Chinese, and since it is not the aim of this study to explore the three-tier language structure in Hong Kong, the study will follow the normal Hong Kong practice with regard to the term `Chinese', unless otherwise stated.

I.2.2 Roles and Status of Chinese and English

With the colonial status, Hong Kong had English as her only official language until 1974, despite the fact that Chinese is the usual language for an overwhelming majority of the population. It was in 1974[5] that Chinese was adopted as an official language in addition to English (Kwok, 1981). In spite of the official parity of English and Chinese, in practice Chinese remains a subordinate language which appears in forms, reports, speeches, and documents issued to the public by the Government. Simultaneous interpretation

was introduced for certain Governmental meetings. The precedence of English in authority is found in that the internal written language of law and the Civil Service is English; and whenever there were inconsistencies or disputes, the English versions would always be consulted as the authority (Gibbons, 1987; Liu, 1987).

As far as the business and employment sector is concerned, a knowledge of English is correlated with income, prestige of employment and educational level. This is due to the importance of international trade, commerce, banking, insurance, aviation, shipping and tourism in the economy, English is often the business language and is important for employment (Podmore, 1971; Gibbons, 1982). Nevertheless, as other occupations and professions are concerned, the need for English varies. Luke and Richards point out that the employment sector in general "requires receptive rather than productive skills of English, and where productive skills are required, ranks writing skills over speaking" (Luke & Richards, 1982, p.53).

Nevertheless, with the widely accepted belief that knowledge of English means financial and occupational mobility, and the deep-rooted attitude that a good command of English is an indicator of a person's capability, there is a strong instrumental motivation for people to learn English. Gibbons also quotes an unpublished survey of Use of English in Hong Kong by the British Council to show that 42.8% of the sample (3784 subjects) who wished to improve their English gave the reasons as: more money / better prospects (55.7%), to be better informed (14.7%), to be enabled to study / work abroad (9.0%) and other reasons (21.1%). Besides, the survey also indicates a significant correlation between income and proficiency in English (Gibbons, 1982, p.121). These suggest that English plays an economically important role in Hong Kong.

In spite of the significant roles played by English at government, education and economic levels, ordinary people rarely

use English in their everyday life. Unlike countries which are former British colonies where English has become one common form of local internal communication, the Chinese in Hong Kong rarely speak English to one another. Such behaviour is "stigmatized" (Gibbons, 1987, p.105) for it seems to give an impression of westernization and the refutation of one's cultural heritage. The fact is that the Chinese and the westerners (mostly expatriates) in Hong Kong have very little interaction with each other and they live in isolated communities with separate life styles and value systems (Luke & Richards, 1982). As far as the mass media are concerned, there is more Chinese than English newspapers, radio and television stations (Hong Kong Government, 1993, ch.21), and according to the surveys quoted in Luke and Richards (1982, p.52, 53), only a small proportion of the total sample watch the English television channels or read unabridged fiction, magazines and newspapers in English.

Surveys on language attitude (Cheng et al., 1973; Pierson et al., 1980;) show that people tend to have positive affective attitudes towards Chinese, while they show a sense of discomfort towards English although prestige is attached to a knowledge of it. As for attitude towards MIX language, Gibbon's study (1987) shows that there exists a conflict between expressed antipathy to it and actual behaviour among university students who use MIX commonly. These studies indicate the ambivalent attitude of the Chinese towards English, a foreign language imposed on them and also a language which is directly related to their achievement in the society. As identified by Weinreich (1963, p.101), such a kind of feeling is particularly acute when " a group considers itself superior but in practice has to yield to the other group in some of the function of its language, or has to fill vocabulary gaps by borrowing from the other language ...."

In view of the change of the political status of Hong Kong in 1997, the lost status of the Chinese language in the society will

definitely be restored. In the public sector, Chinese will become the primary official language after 1997 although the Basic Law provides that "in addition to the Chinese language, English may also be used as an official language by the executive authorities, legislature and judiciary of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region" (People's Republic of China Government, 1990, Article 9). Towards the end of 1980s, the position of westerners in Hong Kong has become weakened in the Sino-British negotiations and the "old antagonism of Chinese vs English is now out of date" (Yau, 1992, p.16). Pennington and Yue's (1994) replication of Pierson et al.'s 1980 study on language attitudes shows that with the change in the political scene in Hong Kong, Hong Kong people are less "locally focused and less tied to the locul culture than in the past" (p.13). They realized the imminent need to integrate the territory with mainland China and to establish ties with other countries. Therefore, the role of English will not be completely replaced by Chinese as it will still have important functions to play in the economy of Hong Kong. Moreover, politically speaking, it will assume new roles, as on the one hand, proficiency in English is one of the greatest contributions Hong Kong people can make to China in its modernization movement (Reynolds, 1984); and on the other hand, it also has a symbolic role in maintaining the autonomy of Hong Kong as a SAR after 1997.

With regard to the roles played by the two languages, Chinese and English, Chinese is the mother tongue and the first language learned by most of the people in the colony; whereas English is somewhere between a second language and a foreign language (see Introduction for the discussion between the distinction of second language and foreign language). This is because it is neither used as a common form of local internal communication (except for official writing) like that in second language situations, nor is it learnt solely for the sake of external communication like that in foreign language situations. However, it resembles situations where English is a second language in its prestigeous status in the

legal system, the government, the economy and education, and at the same time also shares with situations where English is a foreign language in its insignificant role in the everyday life of the ordinary people and that the target community is a foreign and non-indigenous population. This makes English in Hong Kong a second language but in a relatively foreign language context. Luke and Richards (1982) suggest the term `auxiliary language' to describe the unique status of English in Hong Kong. Nevertheless, in this study I will keep to the understanding of the status of English in Hong Kong as a second language in a foreign language context.

I.2.3 Summary

Hong Kong is predominantly a monolingual society. Chinese is the language that the people use in their everyday life, and towards which they have positive affective attitudes. Nevertheless, English is given a more prestigious status because of the policy of the colonial government and the requirement of the employment sector. English in Hong Kong is thus a second language in a foreign language context. The people in Hong Kong generally have an ambivalent attitude towards English, and they learn the language mainly for instrumental reasons. Its importance is, nevertheless, given an unbalanced stress at the expense of the Chinese language and the students' cognitive and psychological development in the education system, an issue which will be discussed in the following section.

I.3 Learning English as a Second Language in the Education System of Hong Kong

In the education system of Hong Kong, English learning plays a very significant role as reflected by the school system and the language policy of the government. The following will be an exposition of the situation of learning English as a second language through the school system and the language policy of the government.

I.3.1 Language Situation as Reflected in the Education System

Apart from a small minority of expatriate children who attend schools with curricula relevant to those of their countries, the majority of the children in Hong Kong attend schools with a Hong Kong curriculum. The schools are, nevertheless, divided into Chinese schools and Anglo-Chinese schools according to the language of instruction. This has been the practice since the turn of the century. The former are schools with Chinese as the language of instruction, and English is studied as a subject; whereas the latter have English as the language of instruction for most subjects except Chinese, so English is something more than a subject, but a tool for learning. According to the definition of Stern, bilingual education is

> "schooling provided fully or partly in a second language with the object of making students proficient in the second language while, at the same time, maintaining and developing their proficiency in the first language and fully guaranteeing their educational development."
>
> (Stern, 1972, p.1)

The Anglo-Chinese schools in Hong Kong can therefore be said as offering a form of bilingual education.

In primary education, over 90 % of children attend Chinese medium primary schools (Education Commission, 1994, p.19). Until the policy of nine-year general education for all was introduced in 1978, it was the case that primary students at the age of 12

had to sit for the Secondary School Entrance Examination (SSEE) for subsidized places in secondary schools. The very nature of the examination made the kind of English taught in most of the primary schools a dead language, or more precisely, "an obscure system of codes and rules, the mastery of which enables one to jump over the SSEE hurdle" (Hong Kong Council of Social Services, 1973, quoted by Downey, 1977, p.68). With the cancellation of the SSEE after the implementation of free education up to the age of 15, the situation is not very much improved. English teaching in primary schools is criticized as having lost its goal and is leading to nowhere.

In the secondary sector, the names of the schools used to carry the labels of `Chinese Middle School' or `Anglo-Chinese School' to reflect the difference in the language of instruction; and in fact, the Chinese translation of `Anglo-Chinese' schools is simply `English' schools. It was only in 1984, that the Education Commission Report No.1 recommended that such references be removed from the names of schools (Education Commission, 1984, p.45). Owing to the government's language policy and parental demand (see discussion in the following Section I.3.2), 90% of students attend secondary schools which are, or claim to be, English medium (Education Commission, 1994, p.19). As a result, about 90 % of children have to switch from Chinese medium to English medium instruction on entering secondary school. The change of language of instruction from primary schools to secondary schools is a controversial issue which has been debated over many years.

Students from these two types of school take their Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) after the fifth year of their secondary education. Apart from the English language paper, the other papers are the same for students from both types of schools. Before 1986, the certificates that students got for their results indicated whether the examination was taken in English or Chinese. These indications were then removed to minimize the distinction between the students.

The sixth form education for Chinese Middle School graduates was different from that for Anglo-Chinese School graduates in the past, putting the former in a very disadvantaged position in terms of academic opportunities.[6] The situation has slightly been changed since September 1992. Students intending to receive tertiary education from either Chinese medium or English medium instruction schools will enrol in a 2-year sixth form course leading to the Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination (HKALE). Nevertheless. most tertiary institutions require a specified grade in Use of English and some also require a specified grade in HKCEE English (Education Commission, 1994, p.9), making the Chinese medium students less competitive to their English medium counterparts. Obviously, with regard to employment opportunities, a similar situation is found.

This section has discussed the language situation as reflected through the education system of Hong Kong. (For a more structural picture of the whole education system, please see Appendix 1.) It is shown that for most children under the system, English is learned as a subject to the primary six level, and then they are expected to have mastered the language to the extent of being able to use it to learn other subjects in the secondary level. In other words, most children in Hong Kong receive the vernacular as their language of instruction at the primary level and then receive bilingual education at the secondary and tertiary level. Nevertheless, whether this system can achieve the object as stated by Stern (1972) quoted before, i.e. making students proficient in both their first language and second language without hampering their educational development, is very much doubted by educators in Hong Kong. The problems related to this. issue will be discussed in section I.3.3. It is apparent that English learning in Hong Kong is very much related to the existing bilingual education system. The next section will therefore be an overall review of the language policies leading to the present language situation in the education system of Hong Kong; and the most recent developments of the language policies will be discussed in greater detail.

I.3.2 Review of Language Policies in the Educational Development of Hong Kong

I.3.2.1 Pre-war Era

Educational development before World War II was not highly placed by the British government whose interest in Hong Kong lay solely in its political and commercial value. Thus only Christian missions had been the pioneers in educational enterprise. There was not much long-term planning for educational development at this stage (Tse, 1982).

It was in 1858 that the government began to build its own schools. The government's support for the study of English rather than Chinese was also backed up by the principle that "political and commercial interest render the study of English of primary importance in all government schools in the colony" (Eital, 1895, cited in Downey 1977, p.67), which came with the appointment of Sir John Hennessy as Governor of Hong Kong in 1877.

It is obvious that Hong Kong, as a colony, has its educational objectives basically set to benefit the government more than the people. English has since then become a tool to cultivate an elite group. With the University of Hong Kong founded in 1910, which employs English as the language of instruction, only those children from well-to-do bilingual families could afford to send their children there. The graduates then became "products of and essential to, the orderly governance and economic prosperity of the territory" (Llewellyn et al., 1982, p.27). English language education was therefore synonymous with power and prestige, and was restricted to the privileged few.

Support for the expansion of vernacular education was voiced by the Brewin Report of 1901, but received little encouragement from the government. With the waves of immigrants entering Hong Kong as a result of the overthrowing of the Manchu dynasty in 1911 and the civil wars in the successive years, the Burney

Report on Education in Hong Kong (1935) attacked the low level of government expenditure in primary vernacular education, and concluded,

> "Educational policy in the colony should be gradually re-orientated .... to secure for the pupils, first, a command of their own language sufficient for all needs of thought and expression, and secondly, a command of English limited to the satisfaction of vocational demand." (Quoted in Sweeting, 1990, p.356)

Nevertheless, the implementation of the recommendations of this report was delayed by the Second World War and the Sino-Japanese War from 1937-45.

I.3.2.2 Post-war Era

Recommendations of the Burney Report were at last recognized in the Director of Education's Report of 1947:

> "Future development must be in the direction of greater participation by government in the provision of primary and secondary education in the vernacular .... The general policy therefore is to improve vernacular education, to build government primary and secondary schools, ... to provide for practical education for the children of poor working class citizens."
> (Education Department, 1946-47, pp.30-32)

It was also planned to establish a school leaving examination in the vernacular for the entrance to universities in China, but this plan was put to an end by the Communist takeover of mainland China in 1949. The change of government in China meant that an alternative had to be found for secondary school graduates from the vernacular. The Keswick Report (1952) suggested the notion of university courses in Chinese in the University of Hong Kong, but the idea was rejected by the University Council.

The process of rehabilitating the school system after the war was laborious and difficult. This was especially true with the enormous growth of immigrants from China arriving in tens of thousands. The Fisher Report in 1951 recommended the expansion of primary education and urged the expansion of teacher training

facilities. Therefore the focus of education was on quantity rather than quality at this stage (Fung, 1986).

I.3.2.3 1960 - 1970

The founding of the Chinese University of Hong Kong in 1963 finally realized the suggestion of Keswick Report in the 50's. At the same time, it was apparent that more resources should be devoted to education because of the need for more secondary school places for the post-war first generation. The government established the Marsh Sampson Education Commission, which in 1963 brought up a controversial issue:

> "English as a medium of instruction imposes great burdens on pupils. With the establishment of a Chinese University of Hong Kong, consideration should be given to .... increasing the number of Chinese schools where English is taught as a second language."
> (Quoted in Gibbons, 1982, p.119)

The commission's wish to see a growth in the proportion of Chinese Middle schools and a clear language policy in education aroused much debate.

These recommendations were finally rejected in a White Paper entitled Education Policy, issued in 1965, though it acknowledged the cultural and educational benefits of learning through the mother tongue. The reasons for this were

> "....marked parental preference for Anglo-Chinese education, the fact that English language is an important medium of international communication and that a knowledge of it has undoubted commercial value in Hong Kong."
> (Hong Kong Government, 1965, p.83)

I.3.2.4 1970 - 1980

The arguments in favour of a thorough re-appraisal of language policy in Hong Kong schools did not die down after the 1965 White Paper. It was reiterated about 10 years later in the 1973 Green Paper:

> "We recommend that Chinese become the usual language of instruction in the lower forms of secondary schools, and that English should be studied as the second language."
>
> (Hong Kong Government, 1973, p.6)

Although the White Paper in the following year admitted that "on educational grounds, there are strong arguments for maintaining that the medium of instruction for children aged 12 - 14 should be Chinese", the same arguments as those 10 years ago about the practical values of English in commerce, trade and industry,as well as parental demand for English instruction were put forward. The White Paper went no further than leaving the school authorities to decide for themselves which medium of instruction they will use:

> "It is the government's intention that individual school authorities should themselves decide whether the medium of instruction should be English or Chinese for any particular subject in junior secondary forms."
>
> (Hong Kong Government, 1974, 2.17)

Ironically, a series of campaigns organized by the public sector to fight for an equal status of Chinese with that of English were carried out at the same period, and Chinese was legally adopted as the other official language in Hong Kong in 1974 (Kwok, 1981). The language policy of the White Paper is a good indication of the extent of the government's "sincerity" in raising the status of Chinese in the society.

The result was that the rolls of Chinese Middle schools continued to decline, many such schools changed to Anglo-Chinese schools and the new schools that opened in new towns were virtually all Anglo-Chinese schools. The percentage of secondary students enrolled in Chinese Middle schools dropped from 42.1% in 1960 to 23.3% in 1970, and a further drop to 12.3% in 1980 (Gibbons 1982, p.121). Parental choice for not sending their children to Chinese Middle schools could reflect the general trend in the community that proficiency in English is a great asset for job-seekers in the future.

In 1978, a nine-year general education for all was introduced. With the introduction of universal free junior secondary education, all young people with or without interest in study are offered a place in a secondary school and no employer is to employ child workers under the age of 14. The problem of language instruction thus becomes more acute. This is because as the participation rate of the school age population has increased, the average level of language competence has declined. The leap from learning English as a subject in the curriculum of primary school to using English as the language of learning of most subjects in Anglo-Chinese secondary schools (except for Chinese Language and Chinese History) poses great difficulties for the teenagers. This resulted not only in the downward spiral of academic performance, but also many classroom behavioural problems.

I.3.2.5 1980 - 1990

Since the beginning of the 1980s, the pace of educational expansion has begun to slow down. A time of evaluation and consolidation has come. In 1981, the government announced a HK$320 million programme of co-ordinated measures to improve the standard of the Chinese and English languages in schools and in the community. The programmes included the installation of wireless induction loop system[7] to schools for the improvement of students' listening ability. There were also the provision of additional teachers in secondary schools for remedial language teaching, and the establishment of an Institute of Language in Education to retrain non-graduate teachers of the two languages. These measures materialized in 1982.

Another highlight of 1981 was the overall review of the educational system. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) was asked to help to review the situation and a panel led by Sir John Llewellyn was formed. Their report, `A Perspective on Education in Hong Kong', was published in 1982, in which a chapter is devoted to language in the classroom. It

was pointed out by the panel that there is the dilemma in the language policy of whether to jeopardise the educational progress of the majority in order to guarantee sufficient number of competent English speakers for economic and political reasons, or to value the whole group but accept the consequence of less competence in using English.

One of the priority areas identified by the panel as crucial in the immediate future development of education in Hong Kong is the need to establish a comprehensive language policy for the education system. The reason is that a lack of language confidence and competence is one of the main impediments to learning throughout the population. The panel also indicated being in favour of "a shift towards the universal use of the mother tongue in the formative years accompanied by the formal teaching of English as a first foreign language", thus leading "progressively to genuine bilingualism in the senior secondary years" (Llewellyn, 1982, p.112). But it did not specify how the teaching of a first foreign language can lead to genuine bilingualism.

In response to the Llewellyn Report and the comments made by the public, an Education Commission was appointed `to submit to the Governor consolidated advice on the education system as a whole in the light of the needs of the community' (Education Commission, 1984, p.1). In its first report in 1984, the Commission stressed the need that the language standard of students in both Chinese and English must be improved and that the teaching of the two languages must be strengthened at all levels. As far as English language is concerned, the major recommendations are the raising of the quality of teachers; the employment of locally available native English speakers with teaching qualifications to teach English; the redesigning of English syllabuses and textbooks; and the provision of secondary schools with information on the English proficiency of their F.1 entrants to assist them in grouping their pupils (Education Commission, 1984, 3.29).

With regard to the language of instruction, it was recommended that schools should be strongly encouraged, but not forced to use the mother tongue, and that there should be a policy of positive discrimination in favour of schools using Chinese as the medium of instruction. This includes the provision of additional resources and teachers of both languages to strengthen the quality of language teaching. Moreover, to avert any consequential drop in the standard of English due to reduced exposure, additional English teachers, facilities of movable partitions for dividing classrooms to create the additional rooms required as a result of split classes (smaller classes for an effective pedagogical approach), a second wireless induction loop system, a one-off library grant for the purchase of additional reading materials in English and other teaching aids are to be provided to schools according to the amount of teaching conducted in Chinese (Education Commission, 1984, 3.19).

Besides, it is also recommended that an end should be put to the distinction between Anglo-Chinese and Chinese Middle schools by the removal of such references from the names of the schools, as the labelling can lead to a set of expectations and interpretations (Cherry, 1966) which may be biased to a certain extent. Further consideration is given to the proposal of removing the language medium indicator in the Hong Kong Certificate of Education by the relevant authority. Research projects into the issue of language education should also be launched, the findings of which would be used to substantiate or to modify the recommendations (Education Commission, 1984, 3.17, 3.29).

These recommendations were accepted in the Executive Council in January 1985. In August 1986, the Commission's second report was published. In it the recommendations concerning language in education were mainly made to supplement those in report no.1. The research projects[8] conducted also yielded findings which were discussed in the second report.

In general, the research findings (for details, see Education Commission, 1986, pp.28-31 & pp. 234-237) substantiate the assumptions on which the Commission had been working provisionally:

> "They confirm that the majority of the pupils would benefit if Chinese were used as the medium of instruction in lower forms. Only pupils of high English proficiency would seem to benefit from the use of English as the medium of instruction. The research findings also show that to adopt Chinese throughout as the medium of instruction at the junior secondary level would probably lead to a drop in the standard of English in secondary forms."
>
> (Education Commission, 1986, IV.3.8)

In addition, the research on the study of the effectiveness of split class teaching of English shows that it was popular with both teachers and students but did not prove to be particularly effective, except in the listening performance of pupils. This suggests that to be effective, split class teaching requires different teaching methods and approaches from those used in conventional classroom teaching. It is thus recommended that there is a need for further research into split class teaching of English and other measures to strengthen the teaching of English.

Towards the end of the decade, the two universities and the other tertiary institutes in the territory also began to review their curriculum and entrance examinations (Higher Level and Advanced Level Examinations). The possibility of introducing a joint admissions scheme to the 6th year secondary students was explored (South China Morning Post, 1989, p.5). This implies a unified sixth form education and examination system with Chinese paper offered for every subject (except for Use of English and English Literature). It is a sign of more recognition of the status of Chinese from the tertiary institutions.

Despite all these moves to encourage the secondary schools to adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction, the number of schools which openly admitted to be Chinese medium schools was further dropped to 8 % in 1988 (according to the figures provided

by the 1988 Hong Kong Annual Report). Schools in general considered it impractical to switch to mother-tongue education because parents would "vote with their feet" and the quality of the schools' intake of students would suffer.[9] (Ho, 1992).

I.3.2.6 1990 -

Throughout the 1980's, the main policy response to the language in education situation was to increase resources for language teaching. Recommendations for a wider use of Chinese in secondary school were still not supported with a clear language policy. The one thing which received more support from secondary schools was the recommendation of a unified sixth form curriculum for both Chinese medium and English medium schools and a Joint Universities and Polytechnics Admissions Scheme (JUPAS), and this was realized starting from the academic year of September 1992. To serve as a temporary measure to help Chinese medium sixth form students reach the requirement for the Use of English examination, an intensive English programme has also been provided since 1993 to prepare these students for the examination. A supplementary English Examination is further provided for those who took the intensive English programme and obtained Grade F in Use of English but otherwise met the tertiary entry requirements (Education Commission, 1994, 2.8.7).

As far as the language in education policy is concerned, the Fourth Report of the Education Commission (ECR4) published in 1990 created much controversy. The Report reiterated the old principles that school authorities should be encouraged to adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction and that they should decide for themselves what their medium of instruction should be. The only new principle proposed was "the use of mixed-code in schools should be reduced in favour of the clear and consistent use in each class of Chinese or English in respect of teaching, textbooks and examinations" (Education Commission, 1990, 6.4.1).

The new principle led to a recommendation that starting from

1994, students be grouped by reference to a medium in which they could learn effectively, and that measures be introduced to help schools and parents make their choices. Medium of Instruction Grouping (MIGA) for the September 1994 secondary school place allocation was based on internal school assessments. Secondary one students were then grouped into (1) "those who would learn best through the Chinese medium"; (2) "those who would probaby learn better through the Chinese medium but who are possibly able also to learn in English"; and (3) "those who are able to learn effectively in English many of whom could equally well learn in Chinese should they so wish" (Education Commission, 1990, 6.4.19). Based on the research projects jointly carried out by the University of Hong Kong and the Education Department, the Commission estimated that only about 30% of the secondary students could fall into the third group. A `bridging course' lasting for 12 weeks has been developed for English medium secondary one students. It covers English, Maths, Science, and one social studies subject. The aim of the course is to help students in the first three months of Secondary One "achieve a threshold level of English so that they can begin to study successfully in English" (British Council, 1994, i).

The recommendations of the Commission were met with many criticisms. It was feared that these measures would lead to social differentiation, elitism and a distortion of the primary school curriculum (So, 1992). Moreover, there is also practical difficulty in matching students' ablity to learn in a medium to schools' choice of language medium. The outcome of the MIGA results of all primary 6 leavers in 1994 was that nearly 60 % of the students are thought to be able to learn better through Chinese (Education Commission, 1994, p.21). At the same time, secondary schools were asked to decide upon the choice of medium by early 1994. The result was that only 52 schools (offering 12% of secondary one places) opted to adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction (Education Commission, 1994, p.22). This means there is a mismatch between the number of students who could not learn effectively in English and the number of Chinese medium secondary

one places offered to them. Many teachers and educationalists have reservations about the proposed secondary one bridging course as they have doubts about the adequacy of 12-week duration in bringing students up to the required level for studies (The Linguistic Society of Hong Kong, 1991).

ECR4 advocated schools to make firm decisions on the medium of instruction, yet many schools are unwilling to commit themselves to making an educationally sensible decision. The government, on the other hand, still fails to provide a clear-cut policy to redress this lopsided situation. What it promises to do is to provide `firm guidance' before the 1998-99 school year to schools towards the right teaching medium (Education Commission, 1990, 6.5.11). In other words, full implementation of the language policy will not be achieved until the post-1997 era when Chinese becomes the official language of the region.

On the whole, the trend of language policies in the past decades shows that the government has not really made any far-sighted or well-considered plan of bilingual education for the good of the students. It is felt that the government is using bilingual education as a tool to create an elite group for utilitarian reasons. The form of bilingual education in Hong Kong is tilted towards English, with Chinese, the mother tongue, assuming a very insignificant role in it. Thus, instead of achieving the object of developing the students' proficiency in both first language and second language as stated by Stern (quoted in the beginning of Section I.3.1), the object is on the development of the second language only. This leads to a utilitarian attitude towards English learning as well.

The willingness of the Government to review and change the present language policy happens to coincide with the series of Sino-British talks about the future of Hong Kong which were started in the 80's. Does this imply that the envisaged change of the political status of Hong Kong is the catalyst for the change of language policies in spite of obstacles like parental

preference and economic considerations put forward by the government in the past? But the language policy measures taken are still not thorough or clear-cut enough as the final decision is still left for the schools to make. What we are sure of, however, is the fact that Hong Kong's language in education is entering a new phase of development. Equal status is to be given to the two languages. It is a time for ideas on the ways of improving the language proficiencies of students in Hong Kong to be put forward, so that problems which have long been existing in the system can be dealt with seriously.

I.3.3 Problems of the Bilingual Situation in the Education of Hong Kong

To the students of Hong Kong, bilingual education is an unusual privilege as well as a burden. It is a privilege to learn both Chinese and English especially when Chinese is the language of a nation with the largest population in the world and English is a widely accepted international language. A knowledge of these two languages fosters the essence of Hong Kong. It helps the people of Hong Kong to retain their cultural heritage and to perform well on the world stage. In the recent development of Hong Kong, English has played an important role not only in the economy and technological fields of Hong Kong, but politically too.

Nevertheless, bilingual education is a burden to many school children as the language lessons make up at least 40% of the time of their lesson hours.[10] Differentiating Cantonese, the spoken Chinese in Hong Kong, from the standard written Chinese is already a difficult task that children start to learn from primary school. Then comes the sudden change of language instruction from Chinese to English in secondary school for most children. This together with the lack of a clear and realistic language policy from the government and the unequal economic and social status of the two languages add pressure and dilemma to the students' learning and growing process.

The problems created by the present form of bilingual education in Hong Kong are widely discussed in Cheng et al. (1973), Siu (1981) and the special issue on language education in Teaching Through Learning, Vol.16 (1978). The following discussion will focus mainly on the problems created by the switch of language of instruction on students, especially those who are in the first form of secondary schools, and also on the situation of learning English as a second language.

As far as the effect of the switch of language of instruction from Chinese to English is concerned, many educators in Hong Kong maintain that educationally, it is detrimental to the learning process of students. A number of studies comparing the effectiveness of English and Chinese as languages of instruction in Hong Kong have shown that Chinese is the more effective medium of instruction for the simple reason that Chinese children understand it better (Johnson & Lee, 1987; Ho, 1987a, 1986; Siu et al., 1979; Poon, 1978; Cheung, 1974). These studies also indicate that the lower a child's academic ability, the more problems are caused by the use of the English medium. The study by MacNamara (1967) of the abilities in handling mathematical questions and reading comprehension questions among Irish monolingual and bilingual children, though being criticised for its claim of the negative effect of the Irish bilingual education on the English-speaking children's ability in handling problem arithmetic (Baker, 1988), indicated that children tested through their weaker language performed more poorly than those tested through their stronger language (Cummins, 1977).

With all subjects across the curriculum of Anglo-Chinese secondary schools taught in English, many pupils do not fully understand the lessons. No wonder it is revealed in the results of the public examinations in Hong Kong that students find it more difficult to answer analytical questions in subjects which demand a greater language competence (e.g. History, English Literature, Economics and public affairs, Geography and Biology), whereas they find it easier to cope with questions which require simple descriptive answers or answers in figures, numerals and symbols (e.g. Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry) (Ho, 1983; Cheng, 1982).

Since so much time is spent on understanding the language, the students' incentive for learning is smothered. Only the very bright or self-motivated students can afford to develop their own interests to continue studying references and outside books. The

study by Kvan (1969) also points out that the English reading comprehension ability of first year university students (the cream of the student population) was only comparable to the 12/13-year-old pupils in the U.K. or the U.S.A.. This suggests that the second language has hindered the `bright' students from going even further in their academic pursuits.

In addition to the cognitive cost, the study conducted by Ripple et al.(1984) shows also the affective costs of bilingual education in Hong Kong. The study explores the impact of language of instruction on divergent thinking, self-esteem, and locus of control in English-speaking expatriate and Hong Kong Chinese adolescents. It is found that the ability to produce original ideas seems inhibited when one is required to respond in a language other than one's mother tongue. Expatriate adolescents were significantly higher in self-esteem, internal locus of control and were more prepared to accept personal responsibility for negative outcomes than the Hong Kong Chinese adolescents.

These adverse effects of the change in the language of instruction are considered to be particularly detrimental to students during the transition from primary to secondary school. To many students, the first year of secondary school brings a linguistic shock. Since English is usually taught as a subject in most primary schools, `formal' knowledge of the language patterns and vocabulary are emphasized and these are very often boring and remote from the average pupils' experience (Lord, 1987). As a result, when children enter secondary schools, most of them are not equipped for the abrupt switch from knowing some `fragments' of the English language to using English as a tool to learn.

According to King (1977), only about 20% of the junior secondary students do not find it difficult to adjust to the English instruction (the reasons for their relative success will be discussed in the latter part of this section). As new information

in all subjects except Chinese and Chinese History is to be acquired through a language which the students know only fragments of, those subjects with a high language dependency tend to become English lessons consequently. Studies of the most popular secondary one textbooks covering the subjects taught in Anglo-Chinese schools (Cheung, 1985; Kwan 1990) also show a mismatch between the prerequisite linguistic skills found in the textbooks and the students' level of linguistic ability. The more conscientious students would annotate their textbooks and learn the texts by rote memory. Those who get so bored looking up new words in the dictionary and learning the spellings would virtually give up and learn to hate textbooks in English (Wilson, 1985).

Indeed, it is really frustrating for many educators that what Cansdale (1969) pointed out more than twenty years ago about the plight of students in their first year of secondary school still holds true today. The best of these students' energies is devoted to cultivating English at a time when their intellectual appetites are voracious and curiosity is aroused. The forcing of their mother tongue into a secondary place in education inhibits the development of their inquisitive attitude to learning.

Another study carried out by the Urban Family Life Survey quoted by Downey (1977, p.69) finds evidence that the student who is poor in English is not only failing to get the opportunity to develop fully whatever ability he may have in other subjects, but is also suffering an ongoing crisis of self-confidence. The effect of this on the F.1 students is great because at the age of 12+, they are just stepping into their adolescence, a period of continuing strivings for self-discovery and self-fulfilment (Jersild, 1957). The constant experience of crisis in self-confidence can have lasting negative effect on their personality development. This together with the other conflicts and dilemmas experienced by adolescents in their physical, emotional and social development, add great pressure on their learning, and very often

lead to behavioural problems in the classroom. The study by Kvan (1969) also points out that the switch to second language instruction just before the onset of puberty may adversely affect creativity and could even cause a neurosis fully as severe as the one we find in children backward in reading and writing.

The above discussion shows the negative effects of the change in the language of instruction especially on secondary one students. As far as the teaching and learning of English as a second language in the classroom is concerned, the present situation does not appear to be effective either.

As mentioned before, under the present form of bilingual education, children can hardly attain functional literacy in English by the end of their six-year primary programme (Llewellyn, 1982). English teaching methods are on the whole highly formalised, and as further identified by Llewellyn, "neither the physical environment nor the inclination of the profession or the community is conducive to innovation" (Llewellyn, 1982, p.42). As a result, student-centred approaches find it hard to compete with established subject-centred practices. English learning at the primary level is confined to mechanical structural drills and language exercises which are disembedded from context (Yu, 1977) as well as alien to the children's experiences.

At the secondary level, more than 90% of the children study in Anglo-Chinese secondary schools where English is supposed to be taught as a second language and also used as the medium of instruction. Nevertheless, English lessons are still very much teacher-dominated and text-book oriented. Discovery methods, team teaching and individualized instruction have little place in the curriculum. The communicative approach to teaching Englsih was introduced through the English syllabus for secondary schools in 1983 (Curriculum Development Council, 1983), but the approach was only adopted by a few schools (Cheng, 1986; Education Commission,

1994). Apart from the resistance to innovation and change, this is also the results of the large class and heavy work-load on teachers. The student-teacher ratio is at 1.3 teachers per class of 40 at the secondary school level (Hong Kong Government, 1987). The textbook therefore provides a ready made lesson plan to the busy teacher and the teacher-centred approach is a more familiar and manageable approach to the less confident teacher.

Language structure still plays a rather significant role in language lessons. The content of English structure textbooks are often unmotivating, and the readers are either abridged from stories different from the students' experience and cultural background or too difficult for students with a limited repertoire of English vocabulary. (See Appendix 2 for an example of a teaching plan for F.1 English lessons.) It is rightly pointed out by Fu (1975) that the textbooks published by international publishing companies are written in the abstract and are basically unrelated to the needs and requirements of Hong Kong learners and society. While those published locally have been improving, considerable attention is still needed on matters of content, relevance, motivation and appropriateness.

Moreover, as pointed out by Ho (1987b), it is a generally held view that with nearly all subjects taught in English, the students are exposed to more English and their English will naturally be improved in such an environment. Nevertheless, this assumption will not always hold true especially under three very common phenomena found in most Anglo-Chinese secondary schools.

The first phenomenon is that the lessons are often inadequate in language input and language output (Tsui, 1992). As the kind of interaction in the classroom consists mainly of the teacher imparting knowledge to students and checking students' knowledge through question and answer, it is far from the rich kind of interaction that the students receive in their first language

outside the classroom. The language input in the classroom is thus not conducive to students' acquisition of how to interact in the target language. Nevertheless, students are also not given adequate opportunities to use the target language in the classroom as their teachers do not think they are capable of interacting in the language. Teachers in general are quite happy to accept one-word or very short responses from students. Thus the vicious cycle perpetuates and students are not encouraged to develop their thinking nor their ability to communicate ideas in a more interactive way.

The second phenomenon is that in real classroom practice, Chinese is used a great deal in all lessons in the lower secondary forms of Anglo-Chinese secondary schools. Apart from the few prestigious schools where English is genuinely the medium of instruction in and also outside the classrooms, the 'teacher-talk' in the remaining Anglo-Chinese schools may range from 100% English to 99% Chinese (Tam, 1980; Johnson, 1984), depending on the practice of the school, the particular subject matter, the intention of the teacher and the competence of the students or the teacher in using English. As most teachers find that it is easier for students to understand and for them to explain ideas and concepts in Chinese, they resort to a variety of mixtures, ranging from predominantly Chinese with some English terms in lower junior secondary forms to predominantly English with some Chinese in upper level forms. It is not surprising to find teachers being translators, instructing lessons in English and then translating them into Cantonese. Johnson's survey (1984) found that of the total talking time recorded, 43% was in English, 48% in Cantonese and 9% in Cantonese with English words inserted. Such a mixture of languages is being used to the detriment of both Chinese and English learning and teaching. No wonder the Llewellyn Report painted a depressing picture of 'Chinglish'; and indeed Cummins' 'threshold level hypothesis'[11] (1979) also puts forward the idea that when a second language is applied at a premature stage, it

will negatively affect the child's first and second language development.

The third phenomenon is that most teachers are by no means fluent in English, and consequently their teaching efficiency is handicapped (Llewellyn, 1982). Not only are many teachers of other subjects not fluent in English, it is also identified by Cheng (1986) that there is a lack of qualified English teachers, as around 40-45% of English teachers in secondary schools are not graduates who majored in English and many of them were not trained to teach English.

With these phenomena present in schools, many students have never really been exposed to fluent or authentic English. The assumption that the so called "English instruction" can help to improve the English standard of students is an illusion in many instances. What is more practical is a down to earth improvement of the teachers' language training and the curriculum of English as a second language in secondary schools.

The above discussion seems to point to the disastrous effects of using English, the second language in Hong Kong, as the medium of instruction. Nevertheless, there is some research proving the success of bilingual education in the form of immersion programmes, such as the St Lambert Experiment (Lambert & Tucker, 1972) and the Ottawa Study (Barik & Swain, 1975). The former is a longitudinal study of the impact of elementary schooling for English speaking monolingual children through the medium of French, and the latter compares a French immersion programme to a French-as-a-second language programme in terms of proficiency achieved in that language. The results show no detrimental effects on cognitive skills and academic achievements of the children educated in the French immersion programme; and their proficiency in French, though not comparable to native speakers, is considerably more proficient than those receiving French-as-a-second language programme.

The success of these studies implies that the form of bilingual education in Hong Kong needs to be revised. Moreover, there are other crucial factors leading to the success of the studies. They are the equal social status of the two languages, the learners' positive attitude towards speakers of the two languages and the teachers being either native English speakers who are fluent bilinguals or native French teachers. Many of these elements are not present in Hong Kong.

Of course it would be unfair to say that bilingual education in Hong Kong is a total failure. There can still be found a small number of successful Anglo-Chinese schools. These are long-established prestigious schools, most of which have feeder primary schools of their own. Their intake of students is mainly restricted to the children of above average academic ability and children from the exceptional middle-class homes where English is found (e.g. elite parents who have English-speaking friends, or watch English television channels and read English newspapers and magazines). There are also a greater number of native English speakers teaching in these schools. These schools have educated many of Hong Kong's powerful and prestigious Chinese elite, who because of their own experience, are quite reluctant to see the government imposing policies affecting these schools which have proven success (Gibbons, 1982).

This situation is perhaps parallel to Cummins' studies on the interaction of socio-cultural, linguistic and school curriculum factors in explaining the linguistic and academic development of bilingual children (Cummins, 1979, 1980). Cummins found that home-school switching has no detrimental effect for most middle-class children from a majority language background, but those from minority language backgrounds and less favoured socio-economic status will have poor academic achievement and an inadequate command of both their first and second languages. Although Chinese in Hong Kong is not the minority language, it does

have a relatively lower social and economic status when compared to English. Besides, the majority homes have parents who are not involved in their children's bilingual development as they do not know the English language at all. The home-school language switching is not backed up by the necessary cultural background and family support, and children are unmotivated to learn the language and yet they have to for the sake of their future. Thus bilingualism in Hong Kong has an `additive' effect for a small minority of the people but a `subtractive' effect for the majority (Beardsmore, 1982, p.19).

To conclude, bilingualism is something that the people in Hong Kong feel it a privilege to have. It is only the sudden 180-degree change of the language medium at secondary school and the unequal status attached to the two languages that make it a controversial issue. It has been proven that the form of bilingual education in Hong Kong is educationally and psychologically undesirable for most students, especially those in the first form of secondary school; and that it does not equip the students with the ability to use English as their second language effectively. It is not felt that bilingual education is undesirable for the students of Hong Kong, but what Hong Kong needs is a form of bilingual education which caters not only for a small minority of the students and is relevant to the context of Hong Kong. The success of bilingual education in other countries indicates that a different mode of bilingual education taking into consideration the specific language situation in Hong Kong should be introduced, and that the conventional approach used in English lessons needs to be improved in order to raise the standard of English.

The next section will summarize the situation of English language learning in Hong Kong and discuss the implications of this for the present study in the light of the recent proposed policies on language education by the Education Commission (as expounded in Section I.3.2).

I.4 Summary and Implications

The English language learning situation as discussed earlier is very much shaped by political and economic factors. The colonial status and the rapid economic growth of Hong Kong have led to an over-emphasis on the importance of English. The great majority of the people, being Chinese and having positive affective attitudes towards the Chinese language, are ambivalent towards English, a foreign language which has assumed the status of social prestige.

The utilitarian language policies of the government have led to a form of bilingual education in Hong Kong which benefits only a small minority of the students who are academically capable or come from elite families. As for the ordinary children, their experience in receiving English instruction is not backed up by their family, social and cultural experiences. The present form of bilingual education seems to fit better in a society where English is naturally used in the everyday life of students. Although the government has recognized the role of mother tongue instruction in maintaining the students' first language and their overall educational development, it makes little real effort in leading a change in the form of bilingual education nor does it provide any clear-cut guidelines for schools on language education.

The government's non-intervention policy in leaving school authorities to decide for themselves the language instruction to be used, and at the same time doing very little long term planning to change the attitude of the public by providing parity in employment and further education opportunities for graduates from both Anglo-Chinese schools and Chinese Middle schools, promote the prestigious status attached to English and the growth of Anglo-Chinese secondary schools. This greatly affects the learning process of secondary school children. Many of them find difficulty in understanding the lessons and textbooks in English, and thus

lose interest in learning. Others who are constantly baffled by their poor performance because of the language problem may develop a low self-image. The negative impact on F.1 students in secondary schools is even more traumatic, as in addition to the many adjustments needed for the life of secondary school and of growing up as adolescents, the sudden change of language of instruction adds further academic and psychological pressure on them.

Apart from the negative effects on students, the present English curriculum also does not help to develop students' English competence effectively. Some of the major causes identified above are: the conventional approach of English teaching in classroom which is not relevant to the experience and everyday life of the students, the non-stimulating classroom interaction and input materials, the large class, the teacher's inadequate language competence and the input of a confusing mixture of Chinese and English as the language of instruction all through the curriculum of most Anglo-Chinese secondary schools.

It was not until the 80's that the government began to review the situation of language in education more seriously and set up the Education Commission to make recommendations for change. The subsequent Education Commission reports reiterate the importance of mother tongue instruction for educational development. However, the actual form of bilingual education implemented in school is still left for individaul school authorities to decide for themselves. Practical support given to schools using Chinese as the medium of instruction are in the form of resources (Education Commission Report No.1) and the making of Advanced Level exams available in Chinese. But such effort is counteracted by the recent Medium of Instruction Policy (Education Commission Report No.4) which is criticised strongly by schools and the general public as short-sighted. Since schools are unwilling to support the policy by committing themselves to mother tongue education, the policy actually brings the language in education scenario back to square

one, that is a state of linguistic segregation.

It is not the purpose of this study to further pursue the issues of bilingual education and language education policies for Hong Kong (see Kwo, 1987 for discussions and evaluation of the different models of bilingual teaching suggested for Hong Kong; Boyle, 1990), for these are not simply educational issues but complicated political and socio-cultural issues. The tracing of the development of governmant's language policy in Hong Kong is to provide a background of the language education situation in Hong Kong. What concerns the author most is what actually goes on at the classroom level, i.e. the ways to improve the present classroom teaching and learning of English as a second language. It is foreseeable that in the near future, the majority of the secondary students will still receive English as the medium of instruction for most of their subjects. How the English teacher can manoeuvre under the system and help students to cope with the linguistic demands on them is crucial for their academic as well as psychological development. This is especially applicable to the secondary one students who are more likely to be baffled by the language problem in the transitional stage from primary school to secondary school.

As far as the proposals related to the improvement of English learning in secondary schools are concerned (please refer back to Section I.3.2.5 and I.3.2.6), very few are about the actual teaching and learning in the classroom. There is only mention of the need to redesign the English syllabuses and textbooks, to implement a different format of classroom organization (i.e. split class) (Education Commission, 1984, 3.19, 3.29) and to provide a bridging programme for secondary one English medium students (Education Commission, 1990, 6.5.16).

As far as the bridging programme is concerned, it is true that what students at their transitional stage from primary six to

secondary one need is a programme which can help them cope with the increasing demand on them to learn effectively in English. The Bridge Programme proposed lasts for 3 months and aims at integrating language and content, and controlling the language used for materials across the subject. The purpose is to introduce vocabulary, grammar and functions across the curriculum so as to maximize repeated exposure and use (Goldstein and Liu, 1993). It is the responsibility of every subject teacher to help students with the language needed for learning. It is questionable whether such a rigid programme in 3 months would meet the needs of the different standard of secondary one students. Nothing is said about students who cannot reach the threshold level required for the effective learning of English after the course. It is misleading to regard the programme as a panacea to the medium of instruction problem in secondary school. In addition, it is not enough just to equip students with the vocabulary, grammar and functions. Students should also be bridged from expressing ideas in their mother tongue to expressing thoughts and conveying meaning in English, and this needs continuous support and practice before they can do so independently.

The English classroom should be the place where students are given the opportunity to learn and understand meaning as well as express meaning through more meaningful interaction and purposeful activities. With regard to the English syllabuses and textbooks, the Education Commission sees the need to make them more communicatively orientated. But as far as the content is concerned, the English lesson is in effect content-free. An informal survey conducted by a local publishing house (cited in Goldstein and Liu, 1993) revealed that children enjoy reading about local personalites and events. In other words, there is the need for textbook writers and teachers to take into consideration the relevance of the content to the level and experience of the students, as well as the sociocultural environment they are in.

As for the format of classroom organization, the research into split class teaching of English mentioned in Section I.3.2.5, yielded results which were not particularly effective as far as English learning is concerned, but split class proved to be popular with teachers and students. This suggests the format of the smaller class is welcome, yet it must go hand in hand with a pedagogical approach which is different from a conventional teacher-centred approach. A student-centred approach taking into consideration the students as individuals with their own needs, interests and experience is needed especially for the secondary one students. This is because they come from different schools and are of different standard and experience, a student-centred approach will give them confidence as their experience and knowledge are valued and is thus a helpful bridge for them to adjust themselves to the new curriculum. In addition, the affective development of students should also be recognized. More personal attention, support and an uncritical atmosphere will lower the anxiety of the secondary one students in the new environment, so that they will be more willing to participate in activities and not afraid to make mistakes in the learning process. Therefore, the teacher-student interaction in a split class must be backed up by a student-centred approach and supportive elements for effective learning to take place.

Now that the role of mother tongue instruction is being considered so important in one's learning process, its role in English lessons should be discussed. The Education Commission (1984) simply assumes that English lessons are to be conducted entirely in English to make up for the loss of exposure to English with the implementation of mother tongue instruction. The Commission (1990) even put the blame of the lowering of student' language ability on the use of mixed-code teaching. But as pointed out by So (1992) and Luke (1992), code-mixing behaviour is a characteristic of all bilinguals. Instead of trying to rule it out rigidly from the English classroom a more positive step is to make use of it to provide students with a means to negotiate meaning in

the classroom. Indeed, this is an area that needs further consideration, especially with secondary one students who are not confident or equipped with sufficient English for them to communicate their true feelings and ideas naturally. In addition, the reality existing in many secondary classrooms, as already pointed out before, is a mixture of English and Chinese as the language of instruction. A more constructive way of utilizing Chinese, the mother tongue of the students, in the second language learning process should be considered.

From the above discussion of the implications of the current change of language policy as reflected in the proposals of the Education Commission, we can thus conclude that the following are aspects that need change or further consideration for more effective learning in a secondary one English classroom:

(1) the appropriate choice and use of textbooks;
(2) the relevance of the syllabus to the students' level and needs as well as to the sociocultural environment;
(3) the correspondence of the format of classroom organization to the teaching pedagogy;
(4) the teacher's recognition of the significance of the students as individuals with their own needs, previous knowledge and language experience, and the contribution of these to the learning process;
(5) the supportive elements available to build up students' confidence in using the language; and
(6) the constructive role of mother tongue in the second language learning process.

The above discussion of the background of English language learning situation in Hong Kong shows a need to explore a new approach for the secondary one English curriculum which will provide possible solutions to the above areas of concern. The study will therefore proceed to examine the language experience approach

(LEA) as a possible alternative to be used for the secondary one English classroom. The major reason for a focus on this approach rests on the seeming potentials of it in providing answers to the areas of concern listed above. LEA is basically student-centred, and is rooted in premises such as to start from where the learners are, to make use of their repertoire of language and experience, to accept their contributions as well as their mistakes, to encourage their own creation of their reading materials, and to integrate all language skills in the process. As a programme of instruction evolving from interests and experiences of the students as well as being integrative and motivating, LEA may provide an alternative to students who do not respond to more traditional instructional methods.

Nevertheless, LEA is more often adopted as a reading approach to develop literacy among beginner readers and children with special needs. Would this approach be appropriate to second language learners as well? To what extent can LEA improve the English language performance of children and achieve it at no expense of the development of the children's first language (or even being contributive to it)? How far is LEA suitable in the context of schools in Hong Kong? Would such an approach be appropriate for the secondary one students, who are in a way like beginner readers and children with special needs in that they are going through a transitional stage and need a bridging programme to help them develop greater confidence and independence in coping with the language? These are the questions awaiting to be investigated in this study. The next chapter is to review the characteristics and foundations of LEA as a reading approach and to its related studies.

Chapter Two

A Review of Language Experience Approach as a Reading Instruction

The Language Experience Approach (LEA) is one of the many reading instructions employed most often to teach beginning readers. It can be described as a method in which instruction is built upon the language and experience of the student. The reading material is created from the child's own language. The communication processes of listening, speaking, reading and writing are integrated in the instruction.

As pointed out in the previous chapter, there is a need to make the learning of English for secondary one students in secondary schools of Hong Kong more relevant, motivating and effective. This chapter is an attempt to examine the process of LEA as a reading instruction, to establish the basic foundations of LEA, to review some previous studies on the effectiveness of LEA in practice and its application to second language learners and learners beyond the age of school beginners, and also to give a reappraisal of the approach. It is hoped that having a general picture of LEA as a reading instruction, we can proceed further with our study on the applicability of LEA for second language learniing with reference to the target group of our study.

II.1 The Process of LEA as a Reading Instruction

The major components of LEA, as indicated by its name are language and experience. Firstly, it is widely accepted that experience is the background upon which reading is built because it makes the reading material relevant and meaningful. LEA also stresses the essential role of experience in learning to read, but instead of assuming that children have nearly all the experiences necessary to get meaning from the print, it uses the

experiences that the children possess and/or provides additional ones as a part of the instructional process. The teacher sets up or makes use of such experiences that the children can relate to, and uses them to teach reading.

Secondly, language is important to reading because it is the tool for reading. In most reading programmes, children are taught to read printed language chosen by adults. In LEA, a child reads his very own words. The child's language comes from his own language repertoire and the experiences that are included in the instructional process. The teacher accepts the child's language as it is, not as what she would like it to be.

It is, therefore, these two components that make reading relevant to the child and also allow him to contribute to his own learning. As far as classroom practice is concerned, the approach does not have a strict format. Different teachers may stress different activities or employ different procedures (see discussion in Section II.3). Nevertheless, in general, a typical LEA lesson for beginning readers is that the teacher reminds an individual or a group/class of children of an experience he/they has/have had recently or provides one for the class. By asking meaningful questions about the experience, much oral language will be elicited. The children's responses are recorded as individual or group stories by the teacher who acts as a scribe. Moreover, the teacher will keep the language patterns of the children without rephrasing or correcting them, though some would do so in the process of negotiating meaning with the children.

The group-dictated stories are usually transcribed by the teacher on large chart paper, also known as `experience charts' (Herrick & Nerbovig, 1964). The teacher will read the chart to the class several times and the children are guided to read various words or sentences from the chart. The individually dictated stories are often copied out or typed neatly by the teacher and

then given back to the child. The child is taught to read his own produced material.

The child is also encouraged to illustrate his dictated experience stories through drawings or paintings. The illustrated stories are later bound into a booklet with its cover designed by the child. The booklet becomes one of the reading materials that the child reads at home and in school. In addition to this, experience stories composed by classmates are exchanged for reading. In this way, the child is able to learn a number of sight words in an informal manner. Follow-up activities such as keeping individual or group word banks for the words learnt are useful for instructions in phonics and classifications of words or dictionary for writing activities.

As children learn more and more words and progress in the language experience method of learning to read, they can begin to write their own experience stories. Of course, considerable help with spelling is needed from the teacher, but children are also encouraged to try the spellings on their own. There is no control of vocabulary in the LEA. The reading materials will basically consist of words and syntactical patterns that are comprehensible to the children and are part of their existing language repertoire. The stress throughout is therefore upon the use of one's own language to create one's own reading material.

At the initial stage of LEA, the "talk-written-down" experience stories are the basic reading materials for children, and the other materials will also be used, depending on the teacher. By the time children have developed more independent reading and writing skills, (e.g. when they are in the intermediate or higher grades), the experience stories become supplementary to reading materials and books of a wider experience and sources. Moreover, the instruction will be extended to provide for various types of reading activities in groups or on an individualized

basis, through which a wider range of reading and creative individual or group writing are encouraged (Stauffer, 1976). Through these, relevant skills like handwriting, spelling, grammar, concept development, listening skills, skills of analysing materials, organizing and presenting information, questioning or the art of inquiry and the like are developed.

In short, the process of LEA as viewed from the child's vantage point, is explained in Allen's often quoted lines:

> "What I can think about, I can talk about.
> What I can say, I can write (or someone can write for me).
> What I can write, I can read.
> I can read what others write for me."
>
> (Allen. 1968, p.263)

The above is a general description of the process involved in applying LEA as a reading instruction. But advocates of the approach see LEA as more than an approach or a series of activities -- "It is a perspective and a philosophy about language learning and about language teaching" (Hall, 1985, p.5). The following is a discussion of the foundations on which LEA is based.

II.2 Foundations of LEA

II.2.1 Linguistic Foundations

The linguistic foundations for LEA are related to the view that the purpose of language is communication, that reading is a form of communication through written language, and that the reading process is affected by the readers' oral and written language skills.

Stauffer (1980) points out that a study of the purpose of language involves two tenets. First, language is a learned behaviour unique to human beings as they relate to and communicate with one another in a social community. Second, language is a system of symbols through which man encodes and decodes meanings. Indeed, these two tenets complement each other. In brief, language is a purely human method of communicating meaning through a system of learned codes. Apart from communicating with others, language also helps us to communicate with ourselves as revealed in our thinking process (Feldman, 1977). Thus the function of language is to communicate, and that is its primary purpose. If language is to be taught effectively, the teaching must be based on its functional usage; in Searle's words,

> "The purpose of language is communication in much the same sense that the purpose of the heart is to pump blood. In both cases it is possible to study the structure independently of function but pointless and perverse to do so, since structure and function so obviously interact." (Searle, 1971, p.16)

Reading is a language-based process. There are very different views on the definition of reading with emphasis varying from the recognition of codes or symbols to the reconstruction of meaning. Based on the premise that the major function of language is to communicate meaning, learning to read will be more relevant and easier if it is based on meaning, especially to beginners. As Goodman puts it, reading is the "reconstruction of a message from

print" (Goodman, 1968, p.15). The closer the gap between the reader and the author's language and thought, the easier it is for the reader to reconstruct the author's message. Through reading, the reader communicates his language and thought with those of the author's. Thus beginning reading could be made much easier if the reader is also the author and sees his own words represented as print which bears meaning to him. In Braun's words, "this element of realism that exists in the child's own produced materials rather than artificial or contrived language forms the basis for a successful, meaningful, communicative experience" (Braun, 1977a, p.5).

It is often recognized that as children start schooling, the major difficulty in maintaining their interest in learning to read and write is that of building up, at a reasonable rate, the number of words they can recognize on sight (DES, 1975). The preparatory teaching of individual words from a reading scheme can be a rather barren exercise which is neither of the child's interest nor does it develop a sufficient incentive for the child to build up an adequate sight vocabulary. Most of these materials were prepared without the identification of the individual language experiences and prior to pupil contact with the reading materials. If texts containing quite a number of unfamiliar words are presented to children, they will spend much time struggling with the words gaining not much meaning or enjoyment from their reading. On the other hand, if a text contains only the small number of words they can instantly identify, it is likely to be boring. When the reading material is designed by an adult author, he calls on his own background of experience to determine the content and the language. If this background is not shared by the reader, lack of understanding or interest results.

Most children learn to speak in early childhood before they can read or write. Halliday (1973) maintains that children learn oral language as they use language functionally. When children

participate in communication situations orally as listeners and speakers, they acquire the oral codes of language. Linguists have discovered that by the time children are of school age, the size of their functional speaking vocabulary is at an average of 7,500 words (Carroll, 1964). This functional language repertoire of the child also indicates that he has learned to differentiate the varieties of sounds that occur in the language. He can interpret the stresses, intonation, gestures and facial expressions that accompany a speech behaviour. Moreover, the arrangements of words into acceptable sequences as in a sentence also mean the child has acquired certain basic grammatical structures of his language. This existing oral language competence can be developed to provide the foundation for reading.

The focus of teaching to beginning readers should therefore be on the relationship between spoken and written language. In the process, the learners should be able to acquire knowledge of the connections between the phonology and the orthography of the language, as well as the semantic information related to the syntax or grammatical patterning. Using reading materials created by the children's natural language in LEA provides "an excellent vehicle for demonstrating that language conveys meaning and for showing that the written code represents the oral code" (Hall, 1981, p.9). There is also research confirming that an instructional programme designed to develop an understanding of the relationship between the learner's familiar spoken language and written language would facilitate his ability to comprehend written material (Ruddell, 1967; and Tatham, 1970).

Apart from interrelating spoken and written language, the LEA to reading is an integrative approach to language as a whole. Language can be seen as oral and written, and as productive and receptive. Expression is conveyed through speaking and writing, and messages are received through listening and reading. All facets of language are unified in real life. In LEA, as a child speaks, he

sees the speech represented by words. When he reads or listens to others reading the writing, he realizes the communicative function of the words. Listening, speaking, reading and writing are all equally important aspects of language. None of these aspects of language is isolated from one another in the approach, they are interrelated and interdependent. Therefore, LEA helps to develop the different language skills of the learner and such an integration backed up by meaningful experience is essential to a successful language learning experience.

II.2.2 Educational Foundations

The principles of LEA are also rooted in the theories of a few great educators. Among the pioneers, Rousseau (1712-78) emphasized that the major factor to be taken into account in education is the child as he is. He wrote through Julie, in `The New Heloise', that "childhood has ways of seeing, thinking, and feeling peculiar to itself: nothing can be more foolish than to seek to substitute our ways for them" (cited in Goddard, 1974, p.3). In other words, a child should be given freedom of thought, speech and action, and the teacher should not assume that her interests and the child's are fundamentally the same.

Bruner (1961) clearly supports the view of respecting the freedom of the child to learn in his way. He advocates that learning and teaching must have the achievement of personal autonomy as their mutual goal by saying that, "Our aim as teachers is to give our students as firm a grasp of a subject as we can, and to make him as autonomous and self-propelled a thinker as we can ...." (Bruner, 1961, p.23).

Torrance and Meyer (1970) delineate the view of personal autonomy by arguing for the importance of developing children's creative processes in learning activities. They put forward the idea of having the learners produce something, e.g. a drawing, a

story, a model etc. and doing something with what they have produced. They consider it important to give children a chance to use what they learn as tools in their thinking and problem solving.

As far as reading is concerned, Thorn (1974, p.26) points out that a major cause of reading disability can be rooted in school practices where reading is taught in "a programme divorced from the child's experience and the totality of language." In using LEA as a reading instruction, teachers are not supposed to impose a `standard' language for children to learn. Rather, children are encouraged to explore more about the language through the language they already possess. It starts from where the children are and values their thoughts and experiences.

Apart from the inspiration of Rousseau and his followers on education with regard to giving the child the freedom to think and learn, Dewey, the American philosopher and educationist, stressed learning by doing and the importance of ordinary everyday experience in learning and teaching. More explicitly than Rousseau, he regarded learning as an active and dynamic process and put forward the idea that education is the intelligently directed development of the possibilities inherent in ordinary experience. (Dewey, 1938) He also emphasized the unity of experience and pointed out that a subject-based curriculum was a meaningless fragmentation of a whole to children.

The idea of Dewey is also taken up Holt (1964), who believes that learning is not the result of instruction or good explanation. It is when the child cares about what he is doing, when he sees the purpose of doing something and when the things he learns are embedded in a context of real life, that he learns better. In the Foreword of his book `How Children Fail' (1982), he maintains that one of the reasons leading to children's failure in school is confusion. Children are confused because most of the torrent of words that pours over them in school makes little or no

sense as subjects and lessons are often fragmented.

LEA is an instruction that is based on the active participation of the child in the learning process. The making use of the everyday experience and language of children instead of the adult-prepared materials for reading makes LEA an instruction flexible for the need of children. Moreover, the emphasis on the interrelationship of the different aspects of language also makes LEA an integrated approach for language learning.

Like Dewey, Piaget also sees the importance of children's experience in learning. He distinguishes the intellectual development of children into stages and illustrates through these stages that learning derives from actions (Flavell, 1963). Although Piaget's developmental theory may be considered as being too rigid in categorizing development into stages of linear progression, it does shed light on learning difficulties experienced by some children. Unlike Dewey whose view on education was mainly based on the assumption that all children are normal and ready to learn if given sufficient incentive, Piaget allows for the fact that children show different levels of ability, knowledge and skills as a function of the rate and quality of the learning experience they encounter. Children who have difficulty in learning should therefore be exposed to the environment and experience they need.

LEA is an instruction which takes into consideration the different levels of children's ability. It provides the flexibility that can be used to capitalize on their varying rates of development. Children are not expected to learn something prescribed but encouraged to experience through action and to verbalise what they have experienced. Piaget points out that the mere fact of telling one's thought to oneself or to others, has "an enormous importance to the fundamental structure and functioning of thought in general, and of child logic in particular" (Piaget, 1965, p.64). Upon this view, Stauffer concludes that LEA to initial

reading instruction in particular and to all reading instruction in general is an effective means of strengthening "the bond between word and action and thought, between language and experience, between reading and writing and communication" (Stauffer, 1980, p.18).

II.2.3 Psychological Foundations

Psychologically, the factors of success, motivation, interest, and attitude, which affect self-concept and achievement, support the use of the LEA.

Towards the end of the 1950s, leaders in education and psychology brought a movement of healthy psychological development. Two representative figures of the movement were Maslow and Rogers. Maslow (1954) talked about the individual's growth toward self-actualization, and Rogers (1962) described a process whereby one becomes a fully functioning person. The two concepts share a similarity in that both stress the importance of bringing the feelings of the person to the surface so as to deal with them more directly. The importance of the psychology of self in education is also emphasized by Brookover and Erikson (1969). They view self-concept as an important variable in the decisions the child makes to carry out his role of the student. Self-concept of academic ability sets limits of achievement for many students. Students with a low self-concept of academic ability are often impeded academically.

A number of educational critics like Goodman (1964), Holt (1964), Illich (1971) and Hargreaves (1982) question the type of learning supported by schools as well as the methods for achieving it. They point out that an education emphasizing learning in the cognitive areas together with practices like ability grouping, punitive techniques and a teacher-dominated environment will lead

to a lower self-image and quench motivation. The review by Purkey (1970) on the idea that there is a gradual increase of a negative self-concept the longer the child is in school suggests that schools seem to aid the development of negative self-concepts. He then suggests six factors essential to creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to developing favourable self-images, namely challenge, freedom, respect, warmth, control and success.

As far as the reading process is concerned, in addition to the limitations on learning imposed by the environment, Chomsky (1978, p.15) maintains that a major psychological stumbling block to reading among children is "one of extreme passivity, a reaction perhaps to initial difficulties in learning to read that discouraged them early on." She then points out that what most poor readers need is to regain the attitude that reading is "accessible to them, that it is an activity worthy of their efforts, and that success is to be expected." Smith (1983, p.138) also refuses to accept that idea of poor readers as he questions that "if these pupils possessed these language skills in conversation, skills for listening and responding, did they not also possess the necessary language skills for making sense of text?" In other words, a fulfilling learning experience and an encouraging atmosphere are essential to build up one's self confidence and help to switch the poor reader's attitude from retreat to pursuit.

LEA starts with and values the individual. The uniqueness of the thoughts, experiences, language, products of the individual are recognized and appreciated. By constructing his own reading materials, the child will have the freedom of self-directed learning. Besides, he will find the text that he learns to read familiar, personal and real. By accepting what the child contributes to the learning process, the teacher lets the child feel that his effort is worth making and be more willing to try to experiment with his creative act of producing reading materials. Moreover, the sense of success and achievement as the child creates

and shares reading with others is a highly motivating power for him to pursue with the activity. Through group-directed reading activities, the child will also learn the importance of co-operation and the value of each individual's contribution. A sense of respect is created. Therefore the supportive and uncritical atmosphere can promote a healthy self-image. In short, the setting and material for a successful LEA can maximize favourable conditions for learning and foster success along with a favourable attitude towards reading and the self (Hall, 1980).

II.2.4 Summary

The essential characteristics of the LEA is the use of reading materials created by the learner based on his own experiences and language repertoire; and that through it, communication skills of speaking, reading, writing and listening are integrated. The linguistic base for the LEA rests upon the view that reading is communication through written language, and the teaching of reading should focus on helping children to make the connection between spoken language (the skills of which they have acquired) and written language. The educational base for the LEA rests upon the importance of the children's own experience in learning. It is through the child's active participation in the learning process that learning is meaningful, relevant and effective. And finally, the psychological base for the LEA rests on the powerful and favourable effect that the approach can bring to interest, attitude, motivation and self-concept. It is on these foundations that LEA is considered an effective reading instruction.

II.3 A Review of Previous Studies on LEA as a Reading Instruction

The beginning of LEA, according to the study of Hall (1985), can be traced to the story methods popular in the middle of the nineteenth century. The term `experience method' did not appear until 1934, and `language experience' was introduced still later and gradually became the most common name for instruction. Other terms such as Language Arts Approach (LAA) or an integrated language arts programme are also used (Hall, 1978).

In Britain, the basic thesis in LEA was already implied in the Hadow reports of 1931 and 1933. For instance, the report entitled `Infant and Nursery Schools' contains the following statement:

> "It should be borne in mind that words mean nothing to the young child unless they are definitely associated with active experience."
>
> (H.M.S.O., 1933, paragraph 58)

The more recent report called `A Language for Life' (D.E.S. 1975) also stresses the fundamental importance of a child's language development to learning to read. The report states that teachers should accept the language of the child and that "there is great value in using as reading materials the children's own writing derived from their school experience and their life outside school" (D.E.S. 1975, p.104). In other words, language activities should take place in a context where they have real, but not contrived meaning. Hall (1985) points out that the informal education and open classroom movement of British schools contributed considerably to the concepts that language experience should be an integral part of the total school experience.

In the U.S.A., the progressive education movement in the 1930's initiated various studies toward discovering a best approach to beginning reading instruction. At that time, LEA was seen only as a supplement to a form of beginning reading programme but not as a main approach for organizing the reading programme. Interest in

this approach was stimulated by the `organic approach' of a dedicated New Zealand teacher, Sylvia Ashton-Warner.

By the word `organic', Ashton-Warner refers to the `strongest impulses' that push up in a child's mind "irrespective of whether or not they should at a given time" (Ashton-Warner, 1963, p.197). Organic teaching is thus "reaching a hand into the mind of a child", bringing out the strongest impulses there and using those as the first working materials. Under this approach, children would learn to read in books of their own making, built up upon a `Key Vocabulary' of words that are personally significant in the lives of individual children, and telling stories of their own experiences. Ashton-Warner's book `Teacher' (1963) which gave an account of her `organic approach' in teaching Maori children how to read, inspired many American educators and teachers of the power of learning through a learner-centred experience approach.

II.3.1 Comparative Studies of LEA with Other Reading Instructions

As far as studies related to LEA as a reading method are concerned, there exists very limited valid experimental literature. Among the earliest reviews of the effectiveness of LEA are Wrightstone (1951) and Hildreth (1965). While Wrightstone stated that LEA brought effective results to reading performance, Hildreth had a similar conclusion but questioned the significance of the early research because the name LEA did not signify the same educational programme from classroom to classroom or from study to study.

The work of Roach Van Allen in developing language experience programmes in California and Arizona since the late 50's achieved a greater recognition by educators because it was a long-term, extensive and penetrating study. The term `language experience approach' (LEA) was coined with the description formulated in the

San Diego County Reading Study Project headed by Allen. He spent a five year investigation on the effectiveness of three reading instructions, namely basal reader approach (BRA), individualized reading and LEA. The project was the first large scale one on LEA. It involved 12 elementary school districts and 67 teachers in San Diego (Allen, 1962).

The findings of this project showed that pupils taught through LEA during the first three years of elementary school made as much or more progress in reading as measured by standardized tests than children taught through the other two approaches did. Nevertheless, it was also indicated in the summary of the results that the using of any specific reading instruction is not the key factor in a child's reading achievement. Rather, any approach which seeks to involve the learner in a meaningful way, enables a high level of teacher-pupil interaction and suits the teacher's teaching personality as well as the background and interests of her children, will lead to good achievement (Allen, 1964). This is why the resource book produced by Allen for teachers is very much activity oriented. These activities aim at the development of various communication processes, and are cross-referenced by means of a code system with a set of language concepts (Allen & Allen, 1976). Teachers are advised to select and use these activities flexibly to fit their own teaching context.

During 1964-65, there were 27 research projects on reading sponsored by the Cooperative Research Programme of the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Those focusing upon a comparison of the Language Arts Approach (LAA) and Basic Reader Approach (BRA) for first grade reading studies produced findings which were not definitive as to the comparative value of the respective approaches.

Vilscek (1967) selected and investigated seven of these studies: Hahn (1966), Harris & Serwer (1966), Kendrick (1966),

Marita (1965), McCanne (1966), Stauffer & Hammond (1966), and Vilscek et al. (1966). Some common research controls among these seven projects were maintained. After 140 days of instruction within methods, pupils were tested with the same instruments. The Stanford Achievement Test, Primary Battery I, Form X was used to measure reading achievements in word meaning, paragraph meaning, vocabulary, and word study; and the San Diego Pupil Inventory of Reading Attitudes was employed to measure pupil attitudes toward reading.

Vilscek found conflicting results yielded by these studies in the above mentioned reading areas. As far as the pupils' achievement in the comprehension of word meaning is concerned, Hahn, Marita, Stauffer and Hammond, and Vilscek et al. found pupils taught through LEA obtained significantly higher scores than those taught through BRA. Opposite findings were presented by Harris and Serwer and McCanne. As for comprehension of paragraph meaning, pupils receiving LEA instructions in studies by Hahn, Stauffer and Hammond, and Vilscek et al. scored better than those receiving BRA instructions; while Harris and Serwer and Kendrick yielded opposite results. In the area of vocabulary achievement, only two of the studies contain statistically significant evidence. Vilscek et al. stated that pupils in LEA programmes had significantly higher test scores than those in BRA; whereas McCanne suggested otherwise. Opposite findings were also obvious in pupils' achievement in word study. Marita and Vilscek et al. found better scores among pupils learning through LEA; and studies by Harris and Serwer, Hahn, and McCanne indicated the reverse. When the attitudes of pupils toward reading is compared, Vilscek et al. reported that LEA is the most desirable instructional method fostering favourable reading attitudes. Harris and Serwer and McCanne concluded otherwise. These findings pose the questions of what caused the contrasting results and which of these conflicting findings should teachers rely on.

Bond and Dykstra (1967) attempted to cross-evaluate and

control for pupil differences in LEA by extending the data analysis of four of the above cited seven studies. These are studies by Hahn, Kendrick, Stauffer and Hammond, and Vilscek et al.. In the cross-study analyses, covariance procedures were applied to control initial population differences among the pupils in the four studies. Opposite findings still exist in a number of comparisons. Statistically significant differences can be revealed in the results of paragraph meaning. The findings of Stauffer and Hammond and Vilscek et al. favoured the LEA, whereas those of Kendrick favoured the BRA. On the whole, Bond and Dykstra admitted that those significant differences (though relatively few) which were found to exist between the pupil achievement of the two approaches generally favoured the LEA; they concluded, however, that "those sporadic differences were often not of much practical significance in terms of actual reading achievement. Little was found in this analysis to support a claim of superiority by either the Language Experience Approach or Basal Method" (Bond & Dykstra, 1967, p.77).

Vilscek then tried to investigate the causes for such conflicting findings in LEA research and found that in some instances, researchers do not provide sufficient information for readers to determine reasons for differences in reported results; while in other instances, the experimenters have violated research techniques that ensure the meaning of findings. She identified differences in the practice of the seven studies in the following aspects.

Firstly, pupils from different socioeconomic strata were selected for different studies, school locations varied from urban centres to rural settings, and teachers were also selected according to different criteria in these studies. The wide variation of techniques for the selection of schools, teachers, and pupils in experimental or control groups probably contributed to differences in instructional effects.

Secondly, there are differences in the procedure of assignment of schools, teachers, and pupils to experimental or control groups. Most of the experimenters reported a random assignment of selected schools and pupils to experimental groups and control groups. But they differed significantly in the assignment of teachers to groups. In some studies, teachers were assigned randomly to the two groups while in others they were invited to select the approach they would use or assigned to the experimental group because they had displayed an earlier competence with the use of the LEA. With so many different assignment procedures, diversity in findings was inevitable, and as concluded by Bond and Dykstra (1967), the research results showed that the teacher seemed to affect achievement more than did the specific method used.

Thirdly, differentiation of operational guidelines for curricula and proposed practices between experimental and/or control groups within a study and among studies also exists. The procedures, guidelines, and curricula related to basal-oriented and other approaches were generally uniformly set among projects by the very nature of the published material employed. Nevertheless, as the guidelines, curricula, and practices of the LEA were reviewed among the projects, much variation existed. The variation indicated that LEA was conceived by different investigators at some point along the continuum of structured learning and teacher direction to incidental learning and teacher awareness. In this case, inconsistency in findings is no surprise.

Fourthly, there might have been limitations resulting from Hawthorne and/or placebo effects. On the one hand, the Hawthorne effect refers to the product of the enthusiasm of teachers who are employing new instructional materials or using new instructional materials. In the seven studies referred, various preventive measures were considered or employed, such as equalizing in-service training for all participating teachers, employing new instructional materials within each experimental or control

treatment, balancing supportive supervisory attitudes, or working with teachers who had previously employed the intructional approaches. On the other hand, the placebo effect results when teachers and pupils are aware of their participation in a research study. This is more difficult to control and thus findings could not be over-generalized beyond the research setting.

Apart from the varying teaching procedures and research controls employed in each of these studies which led to variations of results, the short time period covered in the studies was also an obstacle in drawing conclusions about the effects of the instructions. These suggest that replication or longitudinal studies are needed in order to yield more dependable results.

In view of this need, Stauffer et al. extended the Stauffer-Hammond study (1966) all through from first grade to sixth grade. Their findings in the six year period confirmed that the experimental group exhibited superiority in word knowledge, reading and creative writing. Besides, the added years' experience with the procedures and materials on the part of the teachers seems to have positively affected the learners' reading achievement (Stauffer et al., 1971).

Moreover, as Stauffer's first and foremost conviction is that "the reading process is akin to the thinking process" (Stauffer, 1976, Introduction p.8), the main emphases of his instruction are on problem solving, the developing of an attitude of inquiry and the making use of the rich experience wealth of oneself as well as of others through an extensive use of the library facilities. Thus, Stauffer maintained that there were many areas in which the experimental group excelled over the control group, such as the ability to inquire or raise questions, to adapt rate of reading to their purposes, to convert interests to tastes, to establish and maintain favourable attitudes, to act with zest and regularity, to plan a topic of interest, to present and organize information

creatively and so on. But none of these were able to be measured by the tests administered.

Apart from the San Diego County Reading Study Project and the Cooperative Research Projects, most of the other research studies on LEA were often doctoral dissertations, small scale and not longitudinal studies (see Hall,1978 for an overall review). More replication or cross-validation studies are needed to guard against the danger of the effect of any uncontrolled variable as suggested above. Moreover, the efficacy of the LEA in primary and elementary classroom is the concern of all the studies cited in this section. There is a need for the studies to be extended to a wider choice of experimental subjects instead of limiting them to ordinary school children at primary level. The next section will be devoted to a review of LEA research conducted beyond the elementary level and for learners who are linguistically different.

II.3.2 LEA for Learners beyond Elementary School Level and Learners who are Linguistically Different

There is on thè whole a lack of LEA research conducted beyond elementary school level. Well's study (1975) with remedial 4th grade readers concluded that LEA is an effective means of developing their reading abilities, oral language and written language abilities. Wilson and Parkey (1970) reported favourable results obtained by using a language experience programme in the content areas for remedial 7th grade students. Students' self-image was improved and they viewed themselves more favourably as learners after receiving language experience instruction. Spitzer (1975) reported a similar finding about the positive effect of language experience reading for middle school remedial students in building both confidence and reading ability.

There is, however, limited literature available for studies about the application of LEA to secondary students or adult learners. The studies available are mainly concerned with learners with special needs, and most of them reported results favouring the use of LEA with this type of learners. Among them, the studies of Stocker (1970) and Calvert (1973) appear to be more significant.

Stocker studied the written and pictorial responses to teacher prepared materials based on the interests of students from ten fifth grade and ten eleventh grade in Gary, Indiana. These students were identified as African-Mexican, culturally different, inner city-dwellers with reading disabilities. A case study was prepared on each student. As the topical content of their dictations and compositions was analysed, it was found that for both age levels, "self" was the major concern, with family, friends, school, recreation, and the black image as frequently recurring themes. Stocker concluded that students experiencing severe reading failure could be motivated with language experience materials relevant to themselves; they would respond to problem-solving situations which

solicit their opinions and reactions; and that LEA could bridge the culture gap and facilitate the development of self-expression.

Calvert's (1973) study of the 7th and the 10th grade remedial Mexican-American and Anglo students is an attempt to incorporate and modify LEA into secondary classrooms and to compile these LEA practices into a teacher' guide. Pre and post measurement of vocabulary, comprehension, writing, use of reference materials, use of graphic materials, attitudes towards teachers, and attitudes towards school were evaluated by portions of the Comprehensive Tests of Basic Skills (CTBS), Form Q, Level 2 (for remedial seventh grade students) and Level 4 (for tenth grade remedial students), a district-wide attitude test (Semantic Differential) and a writing scale. The LEA practices modified for secondary school classrooms fell in the following areas:

(1) Dictation of experiences stories took the form of either one student dictating to another student or groups of students taking turns at taking dictation from each other. The ability of these pupils to dictate to each other, the enjoyment of them working with each other, and the length of the school reading period necessitated this modification from the elementary school practice of pupils dictating to the teacher.

(2) Key vocabulary is expanded to include interest words, and they were elicited from students as in elementary practice and the words were recorded on index cards and put aside until the next review.

(3) More interaction among students was provided by organizing students into constantly changing groups according to their needs and interests. This allowed the teacher to individualize instruction for speaking, writing and sharing within each group, and the students also learned from each other and contributed their own efforts to the group.

(4) More stress was placed on problem solving activities, developing from an experience and culminating in writing activities of every kind. Getting students to think, to discuss and to write was a prelude to their actual instruction.

(5) The teacher's reading from a "good book" to the class was modified into having students read about what they had written because secondary school students usually had many diverse interests for the teacher to select a book of common interest for them all. Nevertheless, if a book did appear to be of common interest and when there was time, it was read to the whole class.

Calvert reported significant differences in pretest and posttest mean scores on attainmnet of originality and interest in writing samples by seventh grade and tenth grade students; significant differences between pretest and posttest mean scores of reading vocabulary, comprehension, use of reference materials and use of graphic materials were also found in both grades seven and ten; and there were significant differences in grade seven in pretest and posttest attitudes towards teachers. He concluded that LEA can be helpful in the instruction of the remedial secondary-school-aged students.

An early attempt which introduced literacy to adults backed with language experience principles can be found in Paulo Freire's work among Brazilian nonliterates in the early 1960's. Freire believed that adults could learn to read rapidly if reading were not part of a cultural imposition on them. Adults speak an extraordinarily rich and complex language which they could learn to read and write if only given the tools to do so. He adopted a process called "conscientization", which means that people are encouraged to analyse their reality, to become more aware of the constraints on their lives and to take action to transform their

situation. The reading materials he taught the learners were basically significant words used in the community, which carried emotional impact and capacity for provoking discussion (Brown, 1975; Freire, 1972).

Stauffer and Cramer (1967) reported a language arts programme designed to improve basic communication skills among job-trainers. The programme was a co-operative venture between the State of Delaware Vocational Education Department and the Reading Study Centre of the University of Delaware. The participants were given the opportunity to write about matters of high personal interest and engaged in directed reading/thinking activities. Although the authors reported dramatic progress among the participants, there was no formal evaluation as the primary objective of the programme was in-service training.

Becker (1970) also reported a LEA programme used with four illiterate young adults (between 16 and 21 years of age) at a Reading Lab of a Job Corps Centre for Women, Charleston, West Virginia. The experience stories used for instruction were vocationally oriented. After eleven months, the subjects who were classified as non-readers at the beginning of the programme, were reported to have reached instructional levels ranging from third grade to fifth grade. Becker concluded that LEA is a process of language interaction rather than the submission of one language to another; it respects readiness and at the same time permits the individual to gain missing experiences without loss of dignity, individuality, and self; and it also bridges gaps between education and the life needs and desires of the individual.

Another example of an adult education programme using LEA is the Community Learning Centre, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Kennedy and Roeder (1973) developed a guide for using language experience with adults from their work in the Community Learning Centre. Four different methods, namely dictation, transcription, directed

writing and free writing, were suggested as ways to help learners create their own curriculum. On the whole, research in the area of LEA for adult education is lacking and evaluation is informal.

The studies cited indicate that LEA for secondary or mature leaners is mainly employed for those who are remedial in their reading and writing. It seems that many teachers do not want to rely on LEA as the major means of developing reading for ordinary pupils who can write and read more independently beyond the beginning stages. This may be due to the limitations of personally created reading materials. Students will need to read more extensively and share the experience of people outside their own circle. In other words, if LEA is to be used for more advanced learners, it has to be more diversified and sophisticated in its activities, and should not be the only approach used.

Stauffer (1980) does point out that as children gradually free themselves from the concrete here and now experience and are able to cope with transactions based primarily on the coordination of cognitive and affective components, there is the need to develop "the processes of thinking, the logical methods of inquiry, and the stablization of affective social and moral conditions" (Stauffer, 1980, p.297). In other words, as children progress in their reading maturity, the reading instruction they receive should help them develop a more critical and productive reading process. Stauffer then puts forward the suggestion of extending LEA to a broader cognitive framework by using group and individualized Directed Reading-Thinking Activities (DRTA), which is problem-solving oriented, so as to help readers learn to inquire, process ideas selectively and get feedback by testing answers. Creative writing with focus on sharing and refining is also to be encouraged. This echoes with the LEA programme that Calvert (1973) employed for his secondary level students.

However, the studies also provide evidence that as for

remedial children beyond the age of school beginners, who are not as fluent in writing or reading as their peers, the LEA activities adopted for elementary pupils are very appropriate for them. The rationale is that these learners are usually more advanced in their oral language than the language employed in a lower grade reader. Moreover, the content of a book designed for the younger pupils may appear to be unattractive to them. Therefore, using LEA on topics that are interesting and relevant to the remedial learners' experience will be more appealing to them.

As far as studies on the application of LEA to learners who are second language learners of English are concerned, again, most of the studies were conducted on lower grade pupils. One of the earliest studies was conducted by Meriam (1933) with Mexican-American students as his experimental subjects. He reported impressive gains in the students' reading achievement after a two year study of eighty primary grade children. There was, however, no control group for comparison.

McCanne (1966) investigated the difference in achievement in reading English in first grade between pupils who spoke Spanish at home and were taught by (a) a conventional approach to English readiness and basal reader approach (BA), (b) a modified "Teaching English as a Second Language" Approach (TESL), or (c) a Language Experience Approach (LEA). As already analysed in the above section, he reported results quite contrary to the more positively inclined findings of other studies, that the BA developed the highest achievement in reading skills. Nevertheless, the reasons put forward by him for such finding are that the cultural pattern of these children led to their unwillingness to initiate original expression and fully participate in group activities, and that there was a relative lack of experience with the experimental method on the part of TESL and LEA teachers. McCanne then concluded with a `negatively positive' tone that he observed nothing in his study that was unfavourable toward the case of the TESL and LEA for

developing oral English skills and for enriching experience.

Mendenhall's (1973) study on second grade Chicano children also indicated no significant gain in reading vocabulary and comprehension, nor were there any significant gains in children's attitude towards reading and self-acceptance. Nevertheless, this could be explained by the fact that the time lapse between the administration of pretests and posttests was less than six months; that the language experience activites were only conducted in a one-hour per week session; and that there is no control group of children receiving no language experience instructions; therefore, valid comparison is difficult. As a conclusion, Mendanhall stressed the teacher being the stronger affector upon the pupils' self-acceptance and attitude toward reading.

Cachie (1973) compared the effect of two language experience approaches on black kindergarten students who were speakers of non-standard dialects. One of the approaches was the verbatim language experience approach in which the children's experiences stories were recorded verbatim and used as the instructional text for the teaching of reading. The other approach was the transformed language experience approach in which the children's stories were transformed to standard English before being used as the instructional text for the teaching of reading. The study failed to establish that providing instruction using either one of the approaches produced significantly better performance as revealed in the children's reading comprehension, visual discrimination or word knowledge scores. As the study was only carried out for two months, a control group was absent and there was insufficient information about the LEA procedures employed, the failure to establish any significant findings is no surprise.

Mallett (1975) investigated the efficacy of LEA with twenty-one North American Indian remedial junior high school students in British Columbia, Canada. The design of the experiment was a

matched group with repeated measures. Each subject was in the experimental (instructed by LEA) and in the control (instructed by typical reading laboratory approach) groups; and three assessments were administered, one before the instruction, one after eight weeks of instruction, and one after another eight weeks during which the groups switched approaches. Gains were measured in vocabulary, comprehension, writing achievement and attitude. No statistically significant differences were reported on measures of vocabulary and comprehension, but there were significantly greater gains favouring the experimental group in writing achievement and attitude towards reading.

A more recent study of using LEA to teach second language learners of English is found in the study by Moustafa (1987). The idea of using an adapted form of LEA, namely Comprehensive Input PLUS the Language Experience Approach (CI+LEA) was put forward by Moustafa and Penrose (1985). They suggest that when LEA is preceded by naturally repeated comprehensible input, limited English speakers will be able to dictate texts with expanded vocabulary and standard syntax. Moustafa (1987) investigated the efficacy of CI+LEA among two sheltered English combination classes of fourth, fifth and sixth graders (58 altogether) who were new arrivals to the United States and were in the early stages of English acquisition. The instruction procedures involved the teacher using concrete objects such as study prints (large pictures) or models which could be constantly referred to in conjunction with oral language to help students acquire oral English before the LEA portion of the lesson was begun. It is reported that after eight months, the aural English level in age equivalents of these students which varied from a range of 0 years - 3 years 7 months at the beginning of the instruction, was increased to 2 years 2 months - 5 years 11 months, measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

Apart from these empirical studies on the application of LEA

to linguistically and culturally different learners, there is a general lack of theoretical discussion on the rationale of extending the approach to second language learners. Among the published classics of LEA which are devoted entirely to the theory and method of the approach, neither Lee and Allen (1963) nor Stauffer (1980) mention this group of learners. The former deal mainly with LEA ideas and activities for elementary children; and the latter, though including one chapter discussing the universality of LEA, only cites an example of LEA actions among the reservation Navajos children who kept the Indian style of speaking. Hall (1981) does attempt to include a discussion that LEA seems particularly appropriate for use with culturally and linguistically different children, whose language patterns and life experiences differ considerably from the language and content of many commercial reading materials. She identifies the difficulties (e.g. poor self-concept, negative attitude toward school) that would arise for these children who use a language different from `school language' and `book language' and receive a curriculum that is foreign to their background and interest. She then stresses the importance for the teachers of accepting these children's existing language as they produce their reading materials, even though it may differ from their standards. The intent is to use the children's present level of language development as communication through which they learn to read. Others who voice similar views are Serwer (1969), who advocates the use of "language engendered by the experience and verbalization of the child as a basis for the reading process" (p.458); and Olshin (1977) who states that LEA seems to provide an ideal bridge between the language of the culturally and linguistically different children and the language they will need to read. Olshin further stresses the need of establishing a firm foundation of oral-aural language for these children before developing reading and writing experiences.

All these theoretical discussions and empirical studies, nevertheless, are confined to second language learners of English

or speakers of a non-standard variety of English who live in the host language situation. No one has yet attempted to explore the feasibility of applying LEA to second language learners in a foreign language context, nor relate the basic premises of LEA to second language learning theories so as to establish a firm basis for LEA to be used with second language learners.

II.3.3 Discussion and Summary

The literature review on LEA research has established the view that LEA is an effective reading approach compared to other approaches, though to various extent because of the different instruction techniques and the various experimental procedures involved (Bond & Dykstra, 1967; Hall, 1978; Hildreth, 1965; Vilscek 1967). It is especially effective in areas like word recognition, comprehension, creative writing and developing a positive reading attitude and self-image.

Nevertheless, one of the shortcomings of the above mentioned research is that behind the basic premises, the techniques employed and the emphasis laid by different researchers are different. The techniques are seen as varying from more structured and teacher directed ones to more incidental and student directed ones, and the emphasis also varies from more individualized activities to more class or group oriented activities. Research reports should include a clear description of the methods, so that those who read them can know about the programme that was followed.

The measures used to determine the effect of the approach pose problems too. It may be easy to measure certain technical aspects of the language usage like word recognition or spelling, but as far as the deeper level of learning and the emotive elements are concerned (such as the ability to inquire or raise questions, or to maintain favourable attitudes and to act with zest), it is difficult to design tests that can truly measure these. Very often,

these have to depend on the teacher's personal judgement.

Moreover, certain variables always seemed difficult to control, such as the teacher variable, and the time variable. Individual teacher's commitment and familiarity with the approach is a key varialble to experimental results. In addition, the short time covered in many studies makes it difficult to draw conclusions about the long term effects of the approach. No wonder Stauffer et al.'s six-year longitudinal research reflects teachers' increased familiarity and conviction to the approach having positively affected children's reading achievement.

Although LEA is not an age-bound approach, it is usually used for beginner readers as indicated by the proportion of LEA literature on them. Studies about the application of LEA for learners beyond school beginner level are limited and most of them have been for remedial learners. Nevertheless, this establishes firmly the potential of LEA as an approach for learners of divergent abilities, experiences and interests. As far as LEA programmes for adults are concerned, they indicate promising results; but since no large scale or long term studies have been carried out in this area, no formal evaluation can be made.

Studies on the application of LEA to secondary level students, though limited in number, yield results favouring LEA (Calvert, 1973; Stocker, 1970); and they point to areas that need to be modified for the approach to fit the abilities, needs, and interests of secondary school learners as well as the less flexible framework of the secondary school curriculum. These are areas like the recognition of the students' immediate needs, the involvement of students themselves in the transcribing activities, the expansion of key vocabulary to include interest vocabulary, the balance of independent and interdependent work, and the employment of more group interaction and problem solving activites to evoke thinking, discussion and writing. These ideas are in line with

Stauffer's (1980) proposal of group and individualized DRTA with emphasis on inquiry and problem-solving activities as well as creative writing. As studies of LEA with modifications for secondary school students are limited, there is the need to explore further the various possibilites of modifying LEA and at the same time not losing the essence of it.

As for linguistically or culturally different learners, the studies reviewed indicate different findings. Cachie (1973), McCanne (1966) and Mendenhall (1973) concluded that there were no significant findings of the effect of LEA on students' achievement or attitude. Mallett (1975), Meriam (1933) and Moustafa (1987), reported significant gains in aural language level, writing achievement, reading and attitude toward reading respectively; yet the former two of these studies did not include any control group for comparison. Thus no concrete conclusion can be established at this stage. Different formats of adapting LEA for linguistically different learners (verbatim LEA vs. transformed LEA, and CI+LEA) have been examined in the studies of Cachie and Moustafa. This also indicates that to apply LEA to a wider group of learners with divergent oral language repertoire, variations in the format are necessary and further studies in this area are needed to provide guidelines for language teachers to rely on.

Moreover, little has been said about the theoretical rationale of applying LEA to second language learners of English. Besides, the subjects studied by investigators using LEA as reading instruction for second language learners of English quoted above are mainly students living in places where English -- the target language -- is spoken. In other words, most of these students, though coming from families which have a very different culture and dialect/mother tongue from that of the community, may have already acquired or would easily acquire, to a certain extent, some oral English owing to exposure in an English speaking environment and the more imminent need to use the language socially. But how about

those who learn English in a foreign language context, most probably only in a formal classroom setting with no exposure to the natural usage of the target language or learners who do not see the immediate relevance of the language to their life? Is there any theoretical rationale for LEA, which is based very much on the learner's oral language to develop reading materials, to be applicable to these learners?

In short, it is quite substantially established that LEA is an effective initial reading approach in comparison to other approaches, but how it can be adopted or modified for a wider variety of learners, especially secondary school learners and second language learners are areas that are worth investigating.

II.4 Reappraisal of LEA as a Reading Instruction

The foundations on which LEA stands as discussed in Section II.2 above show that to use this approach as a reading instruction has the following presumed advantages. It promotes a favourable attitude towards reading as it ensures that children have the background of experiences to bring to their reading and that they can read their own language patterns more effectively. It also makes reading a meaningful, creative, integrating and natural activity involving the individuals personally. Moreover, the experiences, language and product of each pupil is greatly valued, this helps to build up the self-confidence and motivation of the pupils, especially readers with special needs.

Nevertheless, the review of previous research on LEA in Section II.3 above suggests that different studies present different pictures of the efficacy of LEA due to the many variables related to "scientific" research (e.g. time variable, experimental procedures, Hawthorne/placebo effect). This section is to explore other criticisms against LEA to see if these criticisms indicate any weakness inherent in the approach rather than the research methodology, which ought to be identified, so that those using it can adapt the approach for their own purposes more effectively.

Firstly, the lack of well structured programme and reading materials is one of the most frequently voiced criticisms against LEA (Miller, 1968). This is true to a certain extent, because anything unstructured can always be dangerous. For instance, with no structured programme, some teachers who find it difficult to understand the complex learning process involved in reading may not be confident or skilful enough to lead the reading activities without guidance. Children's learning may be incidental. There are also external pressures exerted on the teachers and school systems to standardize programmes so that teachers know what to follow, parents know something substantial is taught and the structured

programme will seem to correspond more with the content of standardized tests (Hall, 1985). This results in most teachers' preference for commercial materials and teaching in a more structured way compared to using pupil-created materials and teaching through an unstructured approach such as language experience.

However, while the unstructured element is a weakness of LEA, it is also one of LEA's strong points. The essence of LEA as an approach for reading instruction is its flexibility in letting individuals learn and progress at their own speed and with their own experience. This cannot be fully achieved if the programme is very structured. A well structured programme and systematic approach may help the teacher to organize her teaching materials in a manageable way, but this is not necessarily the way a child learns. As discussed in the section on the educational foundation of LEA (Section II.2.2), to help the child grow as an autonomous learner, the teacher should not assume that her interests and ideas are fundamentally the same as the child's. Therefore, it seems that the willingness of the school authorities and parents to change in their attitude toward a less structured approach and a strengthening of teacher training programme to equip teachers to teach in a child-centred way are essential.

Secondly, as far as the criticism against the unstructured reading materials produced by children is concerned, it is quite evident that some LEA materials may be so varied that there is insufficient repetition of any word to ensure retention in some, whereas others may be too confined and repetitive to allow further enrichment. The children's experiences may also range from very interesting and creative ones to dull and unstimulating ones. Faced with the children's unstructured reading materials, the teacher must be very conscious of the developmental sequence of the different language skills of each learner so as to make them benefit from the reading approach. It is thus pointed out by some

(Miller, 1968; Spache & Spache 1969) that another weakness of LEA is that it cannot be widely applied because only the most experienced and confident teachers of reading can cope with it.

Nevertheless, Chall (1967) points out from a review of the different reading approaches that good and experienced teachers are the prerequisites for the success of almost any learning instructions. It is unfair to say that without sufficient experienced and confident LEA teachers, the approach is weak. Indeed if the approach can bring desirable effects, what is needed is the preparation of teachers with the skills and right attitudes to make use of the approach in teacher training programmes. Besides, Morris (1972) also answers this criticism by stating that the development of many new resources and computerized equipment in the modern world of today allows more independent child-centred learning to take place. The teacher's role in the classroom should be to facilitate learning but not to act as an "on-demand correction machine" (Morris, 1972, p.45). It has to be admitted, though, that practical limitations can be encountered by teachers if LEA is used for a large-sized class where the teacher does not have any assistant or access to resources and aids. It will be quite demanding for the teacher to cater for individual differences or to be the scribe for every child in the case of teaching beginning readers. When faced with this problem, modification of the LEA procedures has to be devised to suit the particular situation.

A third criticism of LEA as a reading instruction is that it conveys the idea that writing is "talk written down". Smith (1977) argues strongly that written language is different from speech, especially if the spoken language is a dialect or is sub-standard. He maintains that by teaching children to read this "children's language", they may be misled to believe that the print they read is a model for all the written language that will confront them throughout their lives.

In fact, it is never claimed in LEA that written language is the same as speech. What LEA does is to lesson the abstractness of written language by using the learner's speech to produce materials of high comprehensibility (Hall, 1981). The approach is based on the concept that "what a child thinks about he can talk about", "what he can talk about can be expressed in painting, writing, or some other form", "anything he writes can be read", and "he can read what he writes and what other people write" (Lee & Allen, 1963, pp. 5-8). In other words, it is recognized in LEA that written language is different from speech and the approach is to help learners proceed from the known to the unknown. It is when the learners are more confident of reading their own language, that they will proceed to the more formal kind of written language with unfamiliar contexts.

The fourth criticism of LEA is somewhat related to the one above. It is the danger of confining the child's reading to the backyard of his own experience. Again, this weakness of LEA is at the same time its strength. Creating reading materials based on the child's own experience is a means to provide context-support to help the child to grasp the meaning of the text before it is encountered in written form. A rich context-support is essential to help a child in his first efforts to read. But as he progresses, there is a need for the context-support to be increasingly attenuated. Morris maintained that the application of LEA should adhere to the principle of "providing a gradient of advance in terms of gradual diminution of context-support" (Morris, 1972, p.46). If not, LEA will be an approach which can function effectively only for elementary level readers. This echoes the proposals of those who attempt to extend LEA to secondary school students (Calvert, 1973; Stauffer 1980 and Stocker, 1971) as discussed earlier. Indeed, the great assets of LEA lie on its sound foundations and its great potentiality to be applied flexibly to cater for the language experience of different types of learners. Confining it to a fixed format will only make it stagnant.

Moreover, the library is an essential facility for the success of LEA. As the children's reading ability improves, they are encouraged to read widely by making use of the library. By doing so, the child's language expression will not be confined to that of his own. Although there is an assumption in LEA that there is a transfer of interest by the child from reading his own words to reading the words of others which has no firm basis (Spache & Spache, 1969), it cannot be denied that LEA can at least motivate students who find difficulty in reading to make the first step forward.

The above criticisms show that LEA does have its weaknesses, and indeed some of the inherent weaknesses are at the same time its strong points. Its lack of structured format, its sub-standard "talk written down" materials, its confinement to the child's limited experience are apparent weaknesses rooted in the principles of LEA. But it is also because of these so called "weaknesses" that LEA can be employed for the purpose of bridging learners from the known to the unknown, and from a state of insecurity to a state of confidence. For LEA to be effective for a wider range of learners, especially for those beyond the level of beginner readers, it has to be adapted flexibly, incorporating supplmentary resources (such as a wider use of library facilities), gradually withdrawing context-support in reading materials, and providing a balance of independent and interdependent language experience activities.

As mentioned in Section II.3 above, the term LEA was coined in the 1960's, but the principles of the approach have long been used before that period, and are still being used now. It is important not to confine one's concept of LEA to the format presented by one or two leading advocators of LEA. The approach has to be developed and adapted flexibly to cater for the needs of a greater variety of learners and to suit the situation of different contexts.

II.5 Conclusions and Implications

The conclusions that can be drawn from this chapter are as follows:

1. LEA is not simply an approach or a series of activities, but it is also a philosophy of language learning and teaching, firmly rooted in linguistic, educational and psychological foundations. It has great potential in bringing about positive effects on the learners' language development, learning process and self-development.

2. There is not a strict language experience canon. Under the term LEA, different teachers may develop ideas and emphasis which may vary from one another as reflected in the procedures employed. Nevertheless, the essence of the approach is the utilization of children's language and experience to produce their own reading materials.

3. Previous literature pertaining to language experience related research has been conducted mainly in elementary education and remedial education. The studies indicate that LEA is best suitable for learners undergoing a transitional stage; for instance, it bridges initial readers to reading and writing, and helps remedial learners to proceed from reading with insecurity to reading with confidence.

4. Studies comparing LEA to other approaches indicate divergent findings owing to many uncontrolled variables. Nevertheless, the research generally favour, though to various extent, LEA in improving learner's achievement in areas like word recognition, comprehension, creative writing and developing a positive reading attitude and self-image.

5. There is limited research on LEA for learners beyond primary

level. The few studies of LEA for secondary level students and adult illiterate learners yielded results favouring the approach; but they indicate a need for the approach to be adapted to suit the needs of learners, especially secondary school students, who have developed more mature language abilities and learning experience.

6. Theoretical discussion on the application LEA to second language learners is limited. The existing ones focus only on linguistically and culturally different children learning English in a host language context, and their theoretical discussions are also confined to the stating of potential benefits of LEA for these children rather than trying to establish a theoretical basis of LEA with reference to to second language learning theories.

7. The empirical studies about the efficacy of LEA for linguistically and culturally different students learning English in the host context yielded inconsistent results owing to shortcomings of the research design. Further studies of the effect of LEA on these learners are needed.

8. The creating of reading materials from the learners' own oral language poses problems to speakers of limited English and English learners in a foreign language context. There is the need to explore how these problems can be overcome.

9. The strength of LEA -- its unstructured nature, its "talk written down" procedure and its context-support reading texts -- can be its weaknesses if (a) the principles of the approach are not fully understood, and (b) the procedures of the approach are employed rigidly disregarding the type of learners and situation. LEA should be adapted flexibly, making full use of other resources and aids, and a gradual diminution of context-support in reading materials is needed with the

advance in learners' reading and writing abilities.

10. For LEA to be used effectively, the teacher plays an important role. There is thus a need to introduce the concept of language experience and train teachers in the skills of using LEA in the language teacher training programme.

The major implication of the conclusions for this study is that the approach appears to be relevant to the needs of the secondary one students receiving English as a medium of instruction in Hong Kong in the following ways:

1. The approach is applicable not only to primary level pupils but can also be adapted for the needs and abilities of all learners. This means students at secondary one level can benefit from the approach.

2. The pupils moving from primary schools to Anglo-Chinese secondary schools in Hong Kong always experience a big gap in coping with the requirement of English (see discussion in Chapter I). They are indeed undergoing a transitional stage from learning English as a foreign language to using it as a second language in learning. LEA, which is suitable for bridging language and experience gaps, appears to have the potential to help these learners to go through this transitional stage and to overcome the psychological anxiety as they face the new learning environment and demands on them.

3. Secondary one students in Hong Kong rarely regard reading in English as an enjoyable or fulfilling activity. Many of them either find the language of the set readers too difficult for their level or the content not meaningful or relevant to them. What they need is a new way of approaching reading. In LEA, reading is made personal, meaningful and interesting by having the learners create their own reading materials based on their

own experiences. It bridges the gap between the reader and the author, (in the case of Hong Kong, between the secondary one student's English and book English), and is highly motivating as the readers can establish their self-esteem through authorship.

However, the findings as to whether LEA is applicable for second language learners with limited oral language and insufficient exposure to the language is inconclusive. Moreover, past studies on the use of LEA to teach linguistically or culturally different students, were all carried out in places where English, the target language, is used in the everyday life of the society. Most learners are already exposed to the target language most of the time outside their homes. However, Hong Kong is in a very different situation. There are very few chances for students to be exposed to authentic English, especially oral English, in the community. In other words, findings of past researchers in this aspect are not sufficient for us to infer whether LEA will work in the language context of Hong Kong. This raises the following questions:

1. Is there sufficient theoretical rationale for LEA to be applicable to the needs of second language learners? As far as most of these learners are concerned, learning to read is not an end in itself but a means to acquire the language as well. Thus how far are the premises of LEA supported by second language learning theories?

2. Inspite of the many different procedures employed under the term LEA, the core practice is to record the verbalized experience stories of learners as their reading materials. In this case, is oral language a prerequisite for the approach to be used on learners with limited oral language repertoire? Should learners be taught to master the language orally prior to the introduction of LEA? If not, how can the teacher deal

with the learner produced texts which is full of mistakes unacceptable to native speakers? Besides, will the learners' limited oral language hinder their sharing of experiences or ideas fully or spontaneously, thus making the activity a straining instead of interesting and natural one?

In view of these questions, the two major areas that the present study is to examine are, firstly, whether the premises of LEA can be supported by second language learning theories; and secondly, whether oral language is a prerequisite for the approach to be adopted for learners with limited oral language repertoire. These two areas will be discussed in detail in the following chapter.

Chapter Three
The Theoretical Basis of LEA to Second Language Learning

III.1 LEA and Second Language Learning Theories

It has been pointed out in Chapter Two that LEA has a great potential in making reading an enjoyable and fulfilling activity for learners as they create their own reading materials through their own language and experiences. Nevertheless, the theoretical rationale of applying LEA to teaching second language learners is not yet fully established.

To a second language learner, reading is usually something more than an activity for the sake of reading. Rather, it is often a means to help them learn the language. The new language and the unfamiliar context of the second language reading materials can always be a source of frustration for the learners. As discussed by Ruddell (1970), the functional varieties of language can be classified into a continuum of the informal, the formal and the literary.[12] He then points out that the language in the instructional setting is in most cases at a level above the learner's language style. Learners from a limited language environment are, therefore, at a decided handicap in approaching the printed page written at the formal level, which is beyond their language experience. Therefore, this chapter will explore how LEA is relevant to second language learners in regard to second language learning theories.

As LEA is rooted in the theoretical rationale of first language development, an understanding about first language development is essential for the subsequent discussion of LEA for second language learning. The following section is, therefore, a review of theories of first language development.

III.1.1 Theories on First Language Development

In the realm of reseach on first language acquisition, the behaviourist emphasis on habit-formation has given way to a more socio-cognitive-oriented approach which stresses the child's active contribution to the learning process. The gist of the behaviourist-rationalist debate of language acquisition is that on the one hand, the predominant proponents of behaviourism, Bloomfield (1933) and Skinner (1957) maintain that the language learning process is essentially a stimulus-response-reinforcement process. Language is considered no more than a set of learned processes. The child's environment is also seen as exerting a major influence. It provides both the models which the child imitates and the rewards which make learning take place.

On the other hand, the rationalists see language learning as a creative activity governed by rules. Chomsky (1965) maintains that children are innately equipped with knowledge about what human language is like and also provided with a special sensitivity to those features of the grammars of human language which are "universal". It is this in-born "Language Acquisition Device" (LAD) which helps children to abstract and internalize unconsciously the structural rules underlying raw language material to which the child is exposed.

The behaviourist theory is attacked by the rationalists on the ground that children cannot simply be mimicking and memorizing since it is almost impossible that they will always hear the same utterance repeatedly. Moreover, from the mistakes they make, it is obvious that they do not hear adults speak in those ways, but they themselves analyse, categorize, evaluate, and develop rules for how it works. The child's internal process is what makes learning take place.

A revolt against the Chomskyan tradition started to evolve in

the 1970's. The view that there are specifically linguistic abilities independent of other aspects of cognition is being challenged. It is argued that language development should be considered as an ontogenetic recruitment of general cognitive abilities to linguistic ends (Bever, 1970). Macnamara (1972) followed this line of thinking and made a reinterpretation of children's language acquisition process. Instead of viewing children as possessing an acquisition device, Macnamara proposed that children are able to learn language because they have certain other skills, especially a relatively well-developed capacity for making sense of certain types of situations involving direct and immediate human interaction.

In other words, the basis for the child to grasp the knowledge of a language is his ability to make sense of things, of what people say and do. With this ability to interpret situations, the child learns to make sense of the language around him through the processes of hypothesis-testing and inference. This view differs from the behaviourist and transformationist models in its fundamental principles that the child is an active agent in the language acquisition process and that language learning is closely related to all the other learning that is going on other than using specific linguistic skills for the task.

Indeed there has been a great deal of research in the relationship between linguistic and other cognitive abilities, among which the most influential work was done by Piaget. Piaget has proposed no theory of language acquistion himself, but language acquistion is accounted for by his theory of cognitive development as a product of intellectual growth. According to Piaget (cited in Donaldson, 1978), the cognitive abilities of young children are very limited, particularly during the period when considerable linguistic developments take place. The period of language acquisition falls between the later sensori-motor and the preoperational stages of intellectual development (i.e. between two

to six years of age). The sensori-motor child's thought structures are limited to the here and now, and must progress step by step. By contrast, the preoperational child can represent all the elements of an organized thought simultaneously, can use a variety of symbols and can range over space and time in the course of thinking. In other words, language is a product of intellectual development. The increase in a child's vocabulary is explained as the result of an intellectual transition to mental representations.

The major difficulty with this view is that it is necessary to establish correlations between intellectual and linguistic orders of development and then to find evidence for the direction of causality between intelligence and language. In contrast to Piaget, Vygotsky (1962) also explored the relationship between thought and language but emphasized the role of language in directing cognitive development. He held the view that the development of a child's "inner speech" (thought) is a direct function of his "socialized speech" (language). In other words, language and the sociocultural experience of the child play an important role in his thought development. Bruner (1964) also stresses linguistic (and social) influences on cognitive development by arguing that the language system matures earlier than abstract cognitive representations, and that it anticipates and extends subsequent intellectual capacities.

This presents us with the two extremes of "thought yields language" and "language moulds thought" (Fletcher & Garman, 1979, p.332). Today, researchers are much more inclined towards an "interactionist" view of the relation between cognitive and linguistic development. Donaldson (1978) has presented compelling evidence from her research in the Edinburgh Cognition Project that Piaget's account of cognitive development is itself in certain respects inaccurate.[13] As far as the evidence related to language development is concerned, she concludes that "[the child's] language learning skills are not isolated from the rest of his mental growth. ..... it now looks as though he first makes sense of

situations (and perhaps especially those involving human intention) and then uses this kind of understanding to help him to make sense of what is said to him" (Donaldson, 1978, p.59). In other words, real life meaningful situations and human interactions are the matrix in which the child's thinking is embedded. His thought and speech are sustained by them. Disembedding him from the the context familiar to his experience would bring difficulty to his search for meaning. Donaldson's study implies that in the process of language development, an interaction of linguistic form and context as well as of linguistic and cognitive development takes place.

Wells' findings based on the Bristol Study "Language at Home and at School"[14] (Wells, 1986) give evidence that children play an active role in their own learning, whatever the social background of the family. He thinks that children are by nature meaning seekers. They try to find the underlying principles that will account for the patterns that they recognize in their experiences. By doing so, they construct an internal model of the world and a linguistic system for communicating about it.

In his study, he finds no evidence of any deliberate instruction, graded or otherwise from parents, in sharp contrast to those who believe that children learn language by imitation. Rather, children actively construct their own hypotheses about the principles for combining the language units and patterns that they recognize in their experiences.

Nevertheless, children are not just autonomous constructors of their own representation of language. Children require evidence about language in use. They need feedback on the effectiveness of their own linguistic behaviour so that they can test the hypotheses of the language principles that they work out. In other words, the adult's response (be it parents or childminder) contributes a great deal to the language learning process of the child. The interest, concern and the effort to make sense of the child's language from

the adult compensate for the child's limitations in language expression, thus making it easier and possible for the child to communicate effectively. Wells (1986) thinks that Bruner's (1964) term "scaffolding" best describes this type of facilitation provided by the adult, as once the purpose for its erection is achieved (i.e. the child being able to communicate independently), it is gradually dismantled. The scaffolding provided by adults and the language experience gained by the child from the surrounding environment mould him to behave and use the language in a way acceptable to the culture of the society. Thus to learn a language for a child also means to learn to become a member of the culture.

To conclude, theories of first language development have indicated the following changes of thoughts:

1. More recognition has been given to the child's active role in language learning. Children do not simply learn through responding to outside stimuli, but they also possess an inborn incentive to make sense of their experience.

2. On the debate of whether language is a product of thought or vice versa, recent researchers in children's acquisition of their first language find greater favour towards the "interactionist" view of the development of linguistic and cognitive abilities.

3. Apart from focussing on linguistic and cognitive aspects of language development, the sociolinguistic aspect is also seen as playing a significant role in the process. The language context and the interaction between adult and child which comes in shared attention, shared activity and a mutual interest in negotiating and making sense of each other's meaning, are the essential starting points as well as the major support to the child's language acquisition.

III.1.2 Second Language Learning Theories

As far as theories on second language learning are concerned, many of them are closely related to theories on first language development. Findings and new ideas in one always trigger further research in the other. Although some linguists maintain that there is not much difference in the strategies employed by a first language learner and a second language learner in the process of language learning (Ervin-Tripp, 1974; McLaughlin, 1978), it is apparent that in second language learning, the situation is complicated by the fact that there may not be a natural target language environment around the learner, and that the learner may have the experience of learning another different language already.

Nevertheless, a distinction between a habit-formation model and a cognitive-code model also exists as linguists try to explain how second language learning takes place. Under the habit-formation model, there are those who hold the view that the use of a second language is a performance skill. It is based on the assumption that we can isolate different skills and practise them separately; and that in spite of the lack of natural language environment, we can require learners to produce predetermined pieces of language through various pattern drills or question-and-answer practices. It is held that this productive activity will lead them to internalize the system underlying the language, such as grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech to the point where they can operate the system without conscious reflection. The performance of different skills can be integrated when total skill is practised (Levelt, 1978).

In contrast to the skill learning model, there is the cognitive-code model which maintains that the learner's internal mental process is active in language construction. Under this model, the transformationists led by Chomsky (1980) are amongst the most influential on the structuralist movement in second

language learning. Chomsky held that learning is a creative activity governed by rules. As human beings are innately capable of analysing, categorizing, and evaluating language, and developing rules for how it works, it is obvious that in second language learning, the process of internalization is basically a conscious control of the phonological, grammatical and lexical patterns of the second language, largely through study and analysis of the patterns as a body of knowledge (Carroll, 1966). Under this principle, grammar should be taught explicitly since it can help the language learner apply what has been learned to new situations.

Both the habit-formation model and the transformationist model have their own shortcomings in explaining how a second language is learned. The former is often accused of being mechanistic and soulless. The learner is always in a passive position, but learning a language is much more than the passive acquisition of a mechanical skill. The model does not explain how one moves "from language manipulation to communication" (Prator, 1964; quoted in Christopherson, 1973, p.18), nor does it relate language learning to cultural context of situational meaning (Rivers, 1964). The transformationist model, on the other hand, is attacked as being capable of "describing" the language user's "competence" but it does not follow that such description can also help the second language learners to acquire that competence (Christopherson, 1973). Moreover, the approach lays its stress on grammar and the learner's innate ability to work out the language rules, so that many other aspects of language learning are ignored. It is in a sense just as automatic and mechanical as processes of the habit-formation model -- "in go the linguistic data, out comes a grammar" (Donaldson, 1978, p.38). The theory still does not explain adquately about how languages are learnt.

In contrast to the transformationists, the creative-construction approach is another theory developed under the cognitive-code model. It stresses that with the exposure and

input from the natural language environment (to approximate the context in which children acquire their first langauge), the learner constructs a series of internal representations of the second language system (Terrell, 1977). In other words, the internal processing mechanisms operate on the input from the language environment and are not directly dependent on the learner's attempts to produce the language himself. The learner's production of the language is a natural outcome of what he has internalized rather than a factor contributing to the process of internalization.

Although this approach considers natural communicative interaction as the most important activity, the value of studying the grammar of the language is not completely discarded. Krashen's distinction between "acquisition" of a language and "learning"[15] hypothesizes that formal learning of the language, though not essential to language fluency, may contribute to the self- monitoring, or self-editing of the output of learners when they have time to reflect on the form of the language (Krashen, 1981a).

The creative-constructionist view differs from that of the transformationist mainly in the understanding of input. The former stresses the importance of the natural input from the language environment whereas the latter is through formal instructions of the language components. Moreover, the former focusses on language usage while the latter focusses on language structure. Nevertheless, the creative-constructionists' stress on the importance of input from the natural language environment implies that their theory is more suitable to learning a second language in a host language context, for it is unlikely that an authentic natural language environment can be created in the second language classroom in a foreign language context. Although it is argued that the teacher can still provide natural input in the form of realia and pictures, the scope of the natural input will be quite restricted in this sense, especially if the learners are beyond beginners' level.

Moreover, the creative-construction model also differs from the skill learning model in that the skill learning model regards the learner's production as an essential element for the process of internalization, while the creative-construction model maintains that internal processing mechanisms operate on the input from the language environment so that the learner's own production is a natural outcome of what he has internalized. This is why advocates of this model (e.g. Postovsky, 1974) stress the need of a "silent period" at the early stages of second language learning when learners can internalize the input.

As far as empirical evidence for these models is concerned, the conclusion drawn by the analysis of errors made by first and second language learners (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Ervin-Tripp, 1974) shows that in addition to errors due to transferring rules from the mother tongue (known as `interlingual' errors), second language learners also make errors which show that they are processing the target language in its own terms (also known as `intralingual' errors), which are similar to those produced by first language learners. This suggests that the second language learner is employing similar strategies, such as generalizing rules, simplification and reducing redundancy as first language learners (expounded in greater details in Littlewood, 1984). Such kind of studies confirm that learners construct their knowledge of the second language through active cognitive processes.

Moreover, as well as forming rules on the basis of the data they are exposed to, second language learners are also found to imitate and memorize specific utterances, without analysing their internal structure. Studies on "routine formulas" and "prefabricated patterns" have findings supporting this (Littlewood, 1984).[16] It seems that second language learners in these studies are able to memorize specific utterances or main body of utterances as a complete unit. Though unaware of the internal structure or of the meaning of individual components, they can use them when the situation calls for them.

The major implications of these findings is that, firstly, both the habit-formation and the cognitive-oriented models have their value in explaining different particular aspects of second language learning. Passive imitation of language forms, active conscious internalization of language rules or unconscious acquisition of linguistic skills through the natural environmental input are strategies demonstrated by second language learners. We should not, therefore, discard their contribution to our understanding of second language learning.

Secondly, as far as the implications for the approaches of second language teaching is concerned, an overemphasis on accurate or native-like use of language is unrealistic[17] if the social context which determines both the linguistic and extralinguistic patterns of behaviour is not taken into consideration.

The sociolinguistic model of second language learning developed rapidly during the 1970s. Emphasizing that the major purpose of language usage is for communication within the social group, the sociolinguists extend their notion of communicative competence to cover a wide range of skills, including the identification of the rules, patterns, meanings, purposes and consequences of language use and also their interrelations (Hymes, 1974).

As culture and society are inseparable, to know how to communicate effectively within the social group also implies to build up a cross-cultural sensitivity (Loveday, 1982). To communicate in a culturally acceptable way, one has to take into consideration whether the language is appropriate for the situations and relationships, as well as know how to use appropriate gestures and body language. In other words, we cannot learn a second language disembedded from its sociocultural context.

Classroom activities centred on interactional contexts and

opportunities to interact with native speakers in natural settings are therefore considered to be of great help to second language learning. To quote Brumfit, "If we ask the question, `what should it mean, in a particular society, to be an English-speaking member of that society?' we shall come close to defining a possible content for the teaching of English, which is intrinsic to the language being learnt" (Brumfit, 1984, p.109). Brumfit thinks that language activities on problem solving put culture in the central position with the understanding that language is a communicative tool expressive of that culture.

As language learning is moved beyond the study of rules and structure to a more function and context based approach, a more active participation of the learner in expressing ideas, emotions and interests is encouraged. Affective elements like anxiety[18], self-esteem[19] and motivation[20] are recognized as playing significant roles in language learning. Thus with the impact of humanistic psychology[21], a humanistic model to second language learning began to take shape.

The humanistic model recognizes the affective needs of the learners and values the worth of individual difference and the expression of their feelings and thoughts (Stevick, 1980). With this understanding, there is no longer the emphasis of a "good" model as a panacea to second language teaching. Language activities and materials are geared towards genuine expression of ideas and feelings instead of the "correctness" of the language usage. For genuine communication to take place, learners must feel at ease in the situation and have satisfactory interrelationships among themselves and also with the teacher. Learners are not to be afraid of making errors because it is meaning rather than form that is the focus.

Under the umbrella of the humanistic model to second language learning, a variety of approaches are put forward. Brown's (1971) confluent learning exphasizes the importance of

working with both feelings and intellect at the same time in both group and individual learning. It is elaborated by Galyean as comprising the following components: "(1) Language practice immersed in the `here and now' reality of class interaction. (2) Content of language practice based upon student offered material, both cognitive (ideas, thoughts, facts) and affective (feelings, personal images, values, interests). (3) Close relationships established among class members. (4) Self-reflection and self disclosure encouraged as a means of self knowledge." (Galyean, 1977, p.143)

Drama is also seen as an effective means to teach second language. According to Via (1975), a play provides a chance for true communication. Learners can work cooperatively with a purpose. By immersing themselves in their roles and duties, the learners focus on what they are doing and not the language, thus freeing them from inhibition and giving them space to work with language in an enjoyable way. Variations of drama activities like role play, mime, improvision, open-ended scenario, and socio drama (see Di Pietro, 1982; Holden, 1981; Maley & Duff, 1982; Scarcella, 1978) can achieve a similar purpose.

Curran's Counselling-Learning (or Community Language Learning) approach is built on the foundation of the whole person, which means a unified, personal, and social experience of the individual (Curran, 1972). Curran, being himself a psychiatrist, was conscious of the "conflict, hostility, anger, and anxiety" that a second language learner experiences in learning. He therefore assimilated the teaching-learning relationship with that of a counselling relationship and advocated learning in an atmosphere of growing commitment, support, enthusiasm and shared achievement rooted in a group-learning situation (Curran, 1976). The most basic factors in language learning are "people" (the basic social process of learning), "persons in dynamic interaction" (the interpersonal relationships between teacher and learners and among learners), and "persons in response" (teacher provides meaningful learning

experiences which fit the needs of the learners at various stages of their development) (La Forge, 1983). In other words, effective learning is based on the awareness of the teacher's and learners' feelings about themselves and about one another. Each must assume a share of the responsibility for the relationship.

In this model, language proficiency is developed in hierarchical stages with learners beginning by creating and recording their own utterances on their own chosen topic in the second language (or in their native language if they feel more secure with it). The teacher will remain a nonjudgemental peripheral supporter who translates what each learner has said into the target language and have the learners repeating it immediately afterwards. The tape will later be used as the material from which vocabulary and grammar are explained. Learners are also given the opportunity to share their reflection after the learning session.

This method, with its lack of structure, places control of learning on the learners. Great demands are also placed on the teacher, however, since there is no way of controlling vocabulary or grammar, and counselling skills as well as knowledge of the two languages are needed.

To conclude, in the past two decades, there have been numerous theories developed to explore how second language is learned and to propose approaches to enhance the learning process. Some of them are rooted in similar assumptions or principles. They can be grouped into four broad categories, namely the habit-formation model, the cognitive-code model, the sociocultural model, and the humanistic model.

As the above discussion of these models proceeds, we can see that there are many changes that have taken place in the development of these models, such as from highly structured and controlled approaches to loosely structured and flexible approaches; from focussing on form and grammar to focussing on

meaning, contexts, and relationships; from regarding language learning as developed by specific "devices" or "abilities" of the person to a whole person process; from teacher-centeredness (teacher being the transmittor of knowledge) to learner-centredness (learners being creators of their own learning topics or materials), or partnership (with teacher and learners involved in meaningful or purposeful task together); from stressing accuracy and fluency to stressing genuine expression of feelings and the value of individual contributions; from the building up of language competence to the building up of self-regard and confidence.

But what are the implications of these changes? Do they tell us which model is the most comprehensive one or do they give us a golden key to unlock the second language learning process? Indeed, there is still so much that we need to explore about language learning. The hypotheses and findings we have at hand are like mosaic pieces which help to reconstruct the whole picture bit by bit. From them, we can draw some generalizations about second language learning:

1. Various strategies like those employed by first language learners are used by learners in the second language learning process. These may vary from memorization, imitation, to creative construction of language patterns based on reasoning and analysis. This indicates that man is capable of using different means to learn and to make sense of the unknown, and that the strategies are basically the same be it first language or second language learning.

2. Language learning involves the interaction of both conscious and unconscious processes. It is impossible and unrealistic to establish empirically when an individual is operating under a conscious or an unconscious process.

3. Similarly, learning a second language involves not only the cognitive and linguistic abilities of the person, but the

affective elements as well. A man is different from a machine in that his different faculties cannot be isolated for examination. Learning involves the whole person, his abilities as well as his affective experiences.

4. The type of input that a second language learner receives will have an effect on his output. Input of language used in its natural environment tends to focus learner's attention on the usage of the language, while input of language in structures and rules tends to focus his attention on the form of the language. Therefore, the choice of input will depend on the purpose of the learning.

5. The environment in which second langauge learning takes place will have an effect on the type of language input the learner is exposed to. In a host language context, natural input of the target language in its natural environment will be easily accessible; whereas in a foreign language context, it will be more difficult to provide such input. This implies the approaches which stress natural input are more applicable for learning a second language in a host language context.

6. Errors are bound to be made by language learners. Second language learning models focussing on language form tend to emphasize accuracy of the language so that language is used correctly; whereas those focussing on language usage and meaning tend to see error correction as blocking the creative production of learners, thus leading to inhibition or imitation. How to maintain a balance between accuracy and fluency (Brumfit, 1984)[22] is something the language teacher should consider seriously.

7. As far as the learner's first language is concerned, only the humanistic model would consider it as acceptable in the classroom for it alleviates the anxiety level of the learner. The counselling-learning approach even

incorporates it into the learning situation at the initial stage. Curran calls it the `vehicle' for second language learning (Curran, 1972, p.238). But the other models discourage learners' use of their first language so as to minimize the effect of interference, as well as to focus learner's attention on and maximize their practice of the target language.[23]

8. As language is a means of communication between man as social beings, language is closely related to culture. To learn a second langauge also implies to learn about the culture of speakers of the language, this includes knowing the meaning of language embedded in the sociocultural context and the appropriate patterns of behaviour, both linguistic and extralinguistic.

9. The learning atmosphere plays a very significant role in second language learning. A supportive and enthusiastic atmosphere is crucial in heightening the interest in learning as well as the building up of learner's self-confidence. Therefore the interpersonal relationships (between teacher and learners and among learners) in a language classroom are important. The roles assumed by teacher and learners also have significant influence on the degree of participation of learners in the learning activities and the classroom atmosphere.

10. With the growing stress on the communicative fluency of language, it is a generally accepted assumption that in learning a second language it is best to proceed from oral to written.

The generalizations we have drawn above indicate that second language learning is a compliçated issue which cannot be fully explained by one theory. Before we apply any language approach to a learning situation, we have to identify the purpose of learning, the different variables[24] that will affect language

learning and consider their interaction in the specific language context.

III.1.3 Discussion of Implications

In the above two sections, we have traced the development of theories on first language and second language learning. As we compare the conclusions, we find that they do not contradict each other in general principles. The strategies employed and the conscious and unconscious processes involved are basically similar. Nevertheless, it is quite apparent that owing to factors like the difference in language environment, purpose of learning and influence of previous language learning experience, the emphases of the respective research traditions are different. Studies of first language development tend to focus more on the child's natural initiative and strategies in acquiring the language as an individual and the relationship between his development of thought and language; whereas studies of second language learning are often geared toward large groups of learners, and tend to focus more on the types of input and the methods to facilitate and motivate the learners' learning.

Therefore, when we try to establish the theoretical basis of LEA for second language learning, apart from relating the basic premises of LEA to second language learning theories, the learner's first language learning experience and competence should not be ignored. In the following, we will identify some similarities and difference of the theories in both respects and discuss their implications for LEA to be used on second language learners.

Firstly, human beings are by nature active agents in seeking meaning of their experiences and acquiring knowledge of the unknown. In the process of first language development, children possess the inborn incentive to make sense of their experience and of the world around them, and they naturally seek meaning of the language they encounter. Comparatively speaking, this kind

of innate incentive or natural inclination to make sense of language is often not so strong for second language learners, especially those learning the language in a foreign language context, not because they do not have the ability to make sense of their second language experience, but because:

a) Many of them do not have the necessary experience to work on. The foreign language context usually does not provide learners ready accessibility to natural language interaction, thus there is insufficient natural input for them to make sense of.

b) They do not have the urgent need to use the second language in getting things done. An ignorance of the second language may not have much immediate effect on their everyday life. Learners who are eager to learn the language are often instrumentally motivated (please refer back to note 20), whereas others may not be motivated at all (e.g. they are made to learn the language under the education system of the country.)

c) The traditional second language classroom does not encourage learner-initiated learning. The teacher is often the authority -- the one who passes knowledge about the language to the learners and also the one who evaluates.

It is in a host language context that second language learners can have a much closer contact with the target language so that they can exercise their natural inclination to seek meaning about it. Moreover, knowing the language is often necessary for their survival (e.g. to communicate with others, to be accepted as a member of the society, to be able to find a job ....), learners will assume a more active and motivated role in learning the language. Similarly, in a bilingual or multilingual society where the target language is the prestigious language in the society[25], and where, presumably, natural input of the target language is more accessible, learners will have greater incentive to learn the language.

This implies that second language learning in a host language context is much more favourable in facilitating second language learners to exercise their initiative in seeking meaning of the second language than in a foreign language context. If LEA is to be applied to second language learners in a foreign language context, it therefore has to revive the initiative of the learners to participate in the learning process.

In fact, LEA is very much humanistic in nature. Similar to the humanistic model of second language learning, it encourages active participation of the learners. It is based on the principle that the learner is a meaning seeker who would like to learn things that are meaningful to him. Unlike second language theories of the sociocultural model which stress natural input disregarding the language context, LEA puts no emphasis on input but starts from the base-line of where the learner is and what the learner possesses already, and makes use of the environment as it is and the resources available. It is unrealistic and artificial to create a "natural" language environment if it is not there. LEA encourages the learner to convey his experience with the amount of language he has, even if it is very limited. The focus is on creating, conveying and understanding meaning as individuals and also in groups with the language one has. The process is to make the language alive and meaningful to the learner.

Secondly, it is shown in the earlier discussion that different models have been proposed to explain first and second language learning, but each of them tends to focus on a different aspect of the learner's language learning capacity (such as the behaviouristic, the cognitive, the linguistic and the affective aspects); and they identify different learning strategies used by the learners (such as memorization, imitation, and creative construction). These models indeed complement and supplement each other. The picture they build up implies that language learning involves the whole person. The roles played by different capacities of the learner should be recognized. At the same time,

as active learning agents, the learners are capable of using different strategies for language learning. Therefore the approach used for teaching a second language should not confine itself to the training of one or two strategies, but should be flexible enough to exercise the different capacities of the learner.

LEA is basically rooted on a whole person approach, valuing what the learner possesses and what he brings to the class -- his thoughts, experience, linguistic capacity and feelings. On the one hand, the approach allows a great degree of autonomy for the learner to learn in the way he chooses. He is allowed to produce his own reading materials, and in the process he can express his personal feelings and experiences and exercise his cognitive, linguistic and creative abilities. On the other hand, the teacher will attempt to provide more structured teaching of different aspects of the language through follow-up activities based on the learner-produced materials. LEA supports the premise of a whole person approach of language learning and promotes an integration of the different learning strategies.

Thirdly, in first language development, apart from the child's own initiative in learning, the adult's reinforcement, interest and cooperation in negotiating meaning with the child forms a temporary scaffolding for the child to build up his language. Again, learning a second language in a host language environment, the learner will experience a similar initial stage with scaffoldings provided by the host language speakers. Nevertheless, tne degree of tolerance and mutual interest shared between a host language speaker and a second language learner may not be as strong as that between parents and child. In a foreign language context, this sort of scaffolding will be lacking. In the traditional second language classroom, the teacher is the transmitter of knowledge. There is little sign of mutual interest or negotiation of meaning going on in the lesson.

In a LEA lesson, when learners are asked to share their

individual experience (between teacher and individual learner) or group experience (among learners), there is mutual interest between the person(s) who share(s) and the person(s) who listen(s). In a first language classroom, the LEA teacher will record directly what the child says without altering the language; but in an initial second language classroom, this may not work as the learners are most probably very limited in their oral language. In other words, modification to the conventional approach is needed. It seems more appropriate if negotiation of meaning can go on in the sharing and listening process, with the teacher or other learners providing feedback and helping each other to convey meaning and to understand what each other says. This kind of classroom scaffolding can be removed gradually as learners gain more confidence and competence in using the language independently.

Fourthly, it is quite apparent that in first language development, grammatical mistakes are often accepted as natural in the development process. It is the meaning of the utterance that is important but not the language form. Besides, mistakes as such are often regarded positively. They are seen as indicators of the child's exercise of the active nature of his search for meaning and the means for expressing it (Clark, 1979). The current second language theories also recognize the many bad effects of emphasis on "correctness". The sociocultural model stresses communicating meaning appropriate to the context, and the humanistic model stresses genuine expression of feelings and ideas. Thus, teacher's correction of language errors tends to focus learner's attention on language form rather than its communicative purpose; and it may inhibit the learner's self-expression.

LEA also advocates the acceptance of the learner's production as it is without any correction or alteration by the teacher. This is to recognize and appreciate the value of the individual's work. It is held that as learners are exposed to more of the correct language usage, they will be able to correct

their own mistakes in future.

It is undeniable that overcorrection and emphasis on perfection will raise the learner's anxiety level and have a negative effect on the learner's incentive to produce the language. However, as pointed out above, the scaffolding stage is essential for learners with limited language repertoire (no matter first language or second language) to gain support and feedback in conveying what he means. Thus, when the learner is sharing his experience in an LEA lesson, correction in the form of rephrasing or supplying the appropriate vocabulary will be helpful to the learner in extending his communicative power, as long as the focus is on meaning and the atmosphere is uncritical, encouraging and not teacher-dominated.

As far as language form is concerned, in a foreign language context where the learner's exposure to the correct usage of the second language is insufficient, it will take up much more time and thus be impractical to expect the learner to be able to correct his own mistakes through further input of the second language. Besides, many second language learners may also expect teacher corrections of their work. This is especially true for those who are literate in their first language and are quite capable of dealing with the abstract rules of the language. Thus the teacher should take into consideration factors like the learner's purpose, expectations, language level, and state of mind, and make selective correction of the language form so that a positive effect can be achieved.

Fifthly, it has been pointed out by the sociolinguists in both first language or second langauge learning theories that language and culture are inseparable. Language is the expression and definition of a culture. As an infant learns to talk in a language, he is at the same time learning to become a member of a particular culture, as there are various concepts, assumptions and beliefs that are implicit in the speech and the language behaviour.

As for a second language learner, the matter is more complicated because:

a) If language and culture are inseparable, learning simply the structure and rules of a second language disembedded from the socio-cultural context is incomplete and poses difficulties for learners to fully appreciate the meaning and use the language appropriately.

b) If the culture of the second language learner is very different from that of the target language, the learner may easily misinterpret meaning or find texts and books with foreign cultural associations difficult to comprehend.

c) If learning to speak a different language implies adopting a different outlook on life, this may pose some threat to second language learners who are not ready or not prepared to be influenced by different values and attitudes, as this would, in Christopherson's words, "(damage) a vital part of his being" (Christopherson, 1973, p.27).

Culture is indeed very abstract, "it is a set of behaviour patterns that individuals brought up together recognized as the right and proper way of doing things. ....They ensure that we feel at ease within our community" (Gussmann, 1960, quoted in Christopherson, ibid. p.23). It is not difficult to recognize the superficial or visible cultural traits as they are quite widely dealt with in tourist information literature or textbooks, but the awareness of the more subtle cultural traits and symbols may be more difficult to grasp, except when the learner lives in the host language context, has a strong integrative motivation or has much interaction with speakers of the language. This implies that it is difficult to expect the second language learner in a foreign context to be able to comprehend and appreciate the cultural subtleties through a second language. Rather, it seems more relevant to present the second language to the learner with the local colour of the sociocultural context that he is in.

In what ways can LEA be helpful to learners learning a language of a different culture? The most significant element which distinguishes LEA from other reading approaches is its use of learner-created materials as the reading texts for learners. This is a means to eliminate the gap between the author's intention and the meaning that the reader brings to reading. Therefore, if the learner can produce his own reading materials at the initial stage of his second language learning, he will not encounter the difficulty of having to comprehend meaning with cultural associations in the text.

Moreover, as the self-constructed reading materials are created on the basis of the learner's own experience or the experience of the whole class through prereading activities, the recorded experience in written form is not like the typical second language textbooks which are "loaded up with complex vocabulary and syntax" (Krashen, 1982 p.183) and disembedded from the context. Rather, it is firmly rooted in context and the experiences of the learner.

Materials created in this way are relevant to the sociocultural background of the learner as well. If the second language is to be meaningful to the learner, he must be able to relate it to his own experience first before he can learn to appreciate the meaning and concepts it reflects of a different culture. In other words, LEA allows the learner to learn to relate a second language to experiences (personal and sociocultural) that are familiar and relevant to him.

Nevertheless, this also implies that LEA is limited in the sense that it narrows the learner's usage and understanding of the language to his own experience. This is true to some extent, because it is not one of the major concerns of LEA to bridge the gap between language speakers of different sociocultural background. Rather, it values the learner's own sociocultural background. Researchers on the application of LEA to children from socioeconomically deprived backgrounds have reported the

value of the recognition of the language experience of these children without imposing the so called "correct" language and the culture it entails on them (e.g. Hall, 1965; and the CRAFT Project cited in Hall, 1978). Paulo Freire, in developing a method of teaching literacy to illiterate adults in the slums and villages of Latin America, also states the importance of "the relationship of men and their world" in the literacy process -- their world meaning the world "to which they refer" instead of the world interpreted by others (Freire, 1972, p.29).

On the other hand, in LEA, through reading materials constructed by other learners in the class about their individual experiences or experiences shared by the whole class, the learner will be exposed to different experiences and also different styles of presenting a familiar experience. This is an essential stage that prepares the learner to proceed from the familiar to the unfamiliar and to accept different ways of looking at the same thing.

Culture is not something that can be "imposed". It is not the basic concern of LEA to introduce the learner to a different culture. It concerns relating the language to the learner's experience. Besides, it never claims that the learner should only read his self-constructed stories or those of his peers. As indicated in the conclusions of Chapter Two, when the learner becomes more independent in reading and ready to widen his reading experiences, there should be a gradual diminution in the support of familiar contexts in reading materials. The learner is encouraged to read more widely through activities like inquiry and problem solving activities. But how much he can comprehend of the more subtle cultural undertones in these second langauge texts is a matter of his life experience. If the learner reads widely, lives in the host language context or interacts with native speakers of the second language, he will naturally learn about the culture through his experiences. If not, then we have to accept the fact that the second language user has a liberty to use the language with a local colour relevant to his

sociocultural background.

Sixthly, there is a growing awareness that affective factors play an important role in the language learning process. This is especially so for second language learners because, as expounded before, the natural language environment and scaffolding support for them are less favourable when compared to those for first language speakers. As a result, the individual's own attitude and motivation for learning the language play an important role in his performance.

As far as the learner's affective aspect is concerned, LEA appears to be a very favourable approach in lowering the learner's affective filter[26]. It has been discussed in Section II.2.3 previously that LEA can lead to many psychological benefits. LEA starts with and values the individual. The uniqueness of the thoughts, experiences, language, and products of the individual are recognized and appreciated. A sense of success and achievement will result as the learner finds his products being valued. Creating and sharing reading with others about one's own experience can be interesting and motivating. Moreover, learning to read something familiar and having one's work (even with errors) fully accepted in an uncritical atmosphere can greatly minimize the anxiety of the learner. In other words, LEA does not put the learner "on the defensive"; and this will facilitate second language learning.

With respect to lowering the affective filter, an interesting element which exists in the humanistic model to second language learning that is absent in other models is the use of the learner's first language in the learning process. As pointed out before, the learner's first language is considered by Curran (1976) as "the vehicle" for second language learning. The humanistic model stresses the genuine expression of feelings and ideas, thus before the learner can do so with the second language, he is allowed to use the first language on a pragmatic ground. Given this liberty to use his first language for

expressions he is unsure of, the learner will have less anxiety and tend to focus his attention on meaning rather than worrying about the correct usage of the language form. Moreover, it is unrealistic to ignore the learner's first language as it constitutes his linguistic competence, frame of reference, and supplies him with a set of associations (Stern, 1965).

The question which follows is whether LEA should allow learners to fall back on their first language when they have difficulty in expressing themselves in the second language. Studies have shown that the use of first language in an English as a second language learner's thinking and composing process may not necessarily interfere or inhibit acquisition of the second language. For instance, Lay (1982) notes that the greater number of switches into the first language during their writing, the better the quality of the essays in terms of organization and ideas. Friedlander's study of some Chinese undergraduates further shows that translation from the first language into English appears to help rather than hinder writers when the topic area knowledge is in the first language (Friedlander, 1990).

Indeed, the use of code mixing is quite common among many bilinguals (Gibbons, 1987). Therefore, allowing the use of mother tongue or code-mixing seems a possible way of encouraging a genuine flow of ideas and lowering anxiety level especially at the initial stage. However, this places great demands on the teacher for she has to know the two languages well and provide language support by translating the ideas or feelings of the learners aptly into the target language. Therefore, it is very much a matter of the competence of the teacher in handling translation of the two languages. A competent teacher may even help learners to see the difference in expressing certain ideas in two languages, thus enriching their bilingual and bicultural experience.

Advocates for drama techniques in language teaching (e.g. Maley & Duff, 1982; Holden, 1981) also acknowledge the

inevitability of students reverting to their first language at times and suggest the acceptance of this as it is a most natural thing to do when one gets excited or involved. They point out that with time and the confidence the teacher has bred in them, the students will come to associate the activities with the foreign language and will have less difficulty in accepting its use.

Seventhly, theories on first language development usually start with the study of the child's utterances. This is based on the assumption that the natural development of one's first language is from spoken to written form. Current theories on second language learning also confirm their significance in facilitating learners' use of the spoken language. Moreover, LEA is an approach which makes use of the learner's oral repertoire to develop reading materials, so it is consistent with this thinking. This seems to assume that LEA for second language learners should proceed from speech to print. How far is this a valid assumption? And if the learner's oral language is very limited, should he be taught to speak the language first before receiving LEA instruction or are there any other alternatives? The next section will be devoted to a more detailed discussion of these questions.

The above discussion shows that in the first language development process, a child receives a great deal of input and feedback from the natural environment and adults around him, which supports and further extends his search for meaning. Many of these elements are lacking in a second language learning situation. It seems logical, therefore, to assume that by creating a situation similar to that of first language learning, the learner will learn a second language better. However, while this assumption sounds logical, it is not always realistic for a second language situation can never be the same as a first language situation. Thus, when we try to use theories of first language development as points of reference to create a more favourable situation for learners to learn a second language, we

have to bear in mind the limitation created by the context and the nature of second language learning and to make the necessary modifications.

To conclude, though LEA is basically geared towards first language learners, the principles behind it can be firmly rooted in most current second language learning theories. It helps to revive the learner's meaning-seeking incentive, takes into consideration the whole person development and promotes an integration of different learning strategies, provides classroom language scaffolding, values individual's contribution, recognizes the sociocultural background and experience of the learner, and lowers the affective filter of the learner. It looks very likely that with appropriate modifications, LEA will prove a promising approach for second language teaching.

III.2 The Relationship of Oral Language and Written Language in Language Development Process

The above section has shown that LEA can fit in quite well with the current trend of second language learning theories; but there is an area which needs more consideration, that is the assumption by most literature of second language learning that learning geared towards oral fluency is more important in developing second language competence. How far is this assumption valid and what is the significance of oral language in LEA as a reading approach for second language learners?

Previous studies on LEA have shown that a basic prerequisite of the approach is the learner's oral repertoire to verbalize their experiences and have them recorded as their reading materials. LEA advocates who have different emphases on the approach also share one thing in common, and that is the central role of spoken language during the early stages of learning to read (Roberts, 1972). In addition to this, those who attempt to discuss the relevance of LEA to linguistically different learners or learners with limited oral English, like Olshin (1977) and Moustafa (1987) suggest the need to strengthen the learners' oral language by training their oral-aural language skills through various means (e.g. comprehensible input) before introducing the reading and writing elements of LEA.

But to say that oral proficiency is a prerequisite for written language development, with regard to LEA, is to assume that oral language is primary in language development. I would like to examine this assumption of language development order below and then attempt to argue my case that such an order need not hold true especially in the case of second language learning in a foreign language context.

III.2.1 The Order of Language Development

Some linguists argue that there is not much difference between the process of first or second language acquisition. McLaughlin (1978, p.200) suggests that "there is a unity of process that characterizes all language acquisition, whether of a first or second language, at all ages", and the general view held is that children universally learn language in the same "natural" order, i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing (Harding, 1967). Lerner (1976), Johnson and Myklebust (1967) also believe that language acquisition progresses through a hierarchy of development for most people. They distinguish listening and speaking as receptive and expressive oral language skills respectively, while reading and writing as receptive and expressive visual skills respectively. They hold that oral language skills are prerequisites for the adequate development of visual language because children first learn to communicate with adults orally.

Thonis (1970) further elaborates on the relationship of oral language and reading by saying that oral language conveys meaning by a set of oral symbols mutually understood by the speaker and the hearer; and written language is secondary to oral language, for print owes its very existence to speech. In other words, spoken words are symbols of things or thoughts and written words are symbols of spoken words. The argument is that spoken language is developed prior to written language. In order to read, the reader must have learned to make the correct associations between the written and oral symbol system. Bloomfield (1942) also held the view that learning to read in one's native language is essentially learning a printed code from the speech one possesses.

As far as visual/written language skills are concerned, there is also the argument of whether reading or writing occur earlier. Some studies reveal that writing symptoms occur earlier than reading symptoms (Durkin, 1966; Hall et al. 1976). Graves even

claims that most children (90%) entering first grade believe that they can write (a liberal understanding of the act of writing to include expressing ideas through scribbling or drawing); only 15% believe they can read (no definition is given). So he concludes that children are well-socialized to anticipate problems in reading but not in writing for they know they can represent what they want to say on paper in their own ways (Graves, 1983). It is unclear how Graves gathered the statistics as mentioned above. Nevertheless, his view is support by Carol Chomsky who finds in her experimental classrooms that the urge to write and communicate is a more natural inclination than the urge to read among kindergarten children before they begin formal reading instruction (cited in Squire, 1983).

Goodman (1980) thinks otherwise. She believes that the beginning of reading development often goes unnoticed in the young child. The lack of sensitivity is due to a misunderstanding or a narrow definition of the reading process, thinking that it is a process to be taught in a formalized school environment. Indeed, beginning reading takes place in a familiar, predictable setting for the child. Since reading is basically receptive, it cannot be observed directly but only inferred from other behaviours. Thus adults may assume that the child is not reading print but the familiar setting, oral langauge or behaviour have given contextual cues to the child to decode meaning. Nevertheless, she admits that in homes where children's writing is encouraged for purposes of communication, writing could develop simultaneously and become more sophisticated at an earlier age than reading.

III.2.2 A Critique of the view of `Natural Order'

The above section shows that it is generally assumed that language development occurs in a sequence from oral language to written language, and from the receptive mode (e.g. reading) to the expressive mode (e.g. writing). But when one makes such an assumption of a "natural order" of language development, one has to be very careful about the definitions of the language skills used and to be careful not to overgeneralize.

As far as oral language and written language are concerned, I agree that developmentally speaking, children usually learn to listen and to speak before they learn to read and to write (if reading and writing refers only to the usage of orthodox written symbols); and historically speaking, man communicated by speech before written symbols were invented. But does this imply a necessary sequence between these language skills in a way that there is only one direction of development? We have to distinguish between what normally happens and what is necessarily the case.

It is pointed out by Reed (1970) and further elaborated by Stubbs (1980), that spoken language undoubtedly has a "chronological primacy" over written language, but it does not necessarily have a "logical" or a "natural" primacy over written language. Exceptions to the "natural order" of language development can occur in cases like deaf children who first learn language through medium other than speech. As cited by Stubbs (1980), Hellen Keller who was deaf, dumb and blind first learned language through her teacher signing into her hands.

Moreover, with wide spread literacy in today's world, it has become a more accepted fact that in addition to oral language, written language is a part of children's experience from a very early age. Even very young children are aware of writing and printed words or of the activities of reading and writing (Goddard,

1974). Functionally speaking, the widespread literacy environment also brings about obvious ways in which written language has social primacy over spoken language (Householder, 1971). We can easily find examples of written language (such as road signs, product labels, billboards) developing along quite independent lines from spoken language and having a wider functional range than spoken language in terms of social prestige and legal binding effect. Therefore, it is not necessarily a must to believe that spoken language is the prerequisite for mastering written language.

As far as empirical research is concerned, in the longitudinal study of language used by children in the kindergarten and first six years of elementary school, Loban (1963) found that the data accumulated showed a high relation between reading and oral language. He concluded that many pupils who lacked skill in using speech would have difficulty in mastering the written tradition. Competence in the spoken language appears to be a necessary base for competence in writing and reading.

Nevertheless, Chu-Chang's investigation into the relationship between oral language and reading in monolingual English speakers showed that there are just as many research studies that show no correlation between oral language proficiency and reading as those that show a significant positive correlation. Moreover, a positive correlation does not imply a causal relation; so it does not really answer the question of whether learning to read is dependent on oral language (Chu-Chang, 1981, p.31). Therefore, it is an oversimplification to regard oral proficiency as the prerequisite for reading.

Wells has shown in his Bristol study that there exists a natural sequence of language development, not in the language skills, but in the linguistic systems (i.e. functions, meaning, and forms of language). Nevertheless, when children try to work out the linguistic systems, meaningful interactions which also involve

"`natural' channels of sight, sound, touch, and smell" are taking place (Wells, 1986., p.33). In other words, children's senses interact together to help them "crack" the codes of language as a whole, and they are not attending to different skills in a fixed order.

Thus the correlation between the proficiency of one's oral language and written language as shown in some studies can be interpreted as an indication of the interrelations in the language skills, but not necessarily a hierarchical status of the language skills. The separation of language into a heirarchy of skills is, therefore, not based on the observation of a child's approach to learn, but merely an outcome of an adult's logical analysis of the task, and also a means to make formal instruction of the language in school more manageable for most teachers. The Bullock report strongly advocates a change in the attitude of extracting language skills from context and puts forward the view that language should be learned "as a pattern, not as an inert collection of units added serially", and that "language competence grows incrementally through an interaction of writing, talk, reading and experience, the body of resulting work forming an organic whole" (D.E.S., 1975, p.7).

As far as the order of reading and writing skills is concerned, with the understanding that "reading" and "writing" at the pre-school age can be broadly defined to include activities like matching of pictures and words as well as scribbling and drawing on paper, we can easily find children engaging in reading and writing activities in a self-learned way rather than following a sequenced programme. Moreover, home environment and adult reinforcement will help to focus children's attention on different activities. It is clear that cases of writing before reading, reading before writing or simultaneous development of both do exist.

What is significant is that preschool children are "set towards literacy" (Holdaway, 1979, p.49), and they are active theory-builders, operating on problems and constructing their own solutions. Children who are encouraged to explore the possibilities of written language (be it reading or writing) seek meanings from the prints they encounter as well as create written representations to express meaning for themselves. It is natural for them to write or draw about things they have read or experienced. Gilliland (1972) also discusses the issue of "set to learn" which is a reflection of one's disposition or attitude towards a task. The strength of one's "set to learn" will affect one's performance of the task. Therefore, as long as the child is the originator of the task in hand, he is likely to find meaning in it and have a much greater commitment to it.

Observations of children's language development also show that children may have their different "preferred modes of language" (Monroe, 1971. p.26). Their different experience may lead them to choose to devote their attention to different aspects of their environment. Thus the view that there is a fixed sequence of language skills through which all children must pass raises doubts (Clay, 1975).

The above discussion shows that a so called "natural order" of language development in the sequence of listening, speaking, reading and writing is a very simplified view of the whole language development process. This implies that upholding the learners' oral language as a prerequisite for LEA to be developed will simply limit the application of LEA to a wider range of learners. Since the second language learners is the main concern of this study, the following section will focus mainly on the relationship between oral language and reading with reference to second language learning.

III.2.3 The Relationship of Oral Language and Reading for Second Language learning

In addition to the many second language learning theories (discussed in section III.1.2) which imply that second language learning should start with the oral skills, there are also some linguists who share the view that reading in the second language should be introduced when the learner has achieved mastery of oral language skills in the second language. Thonis, being concerned with teaching reading to non-English readers, claims that there is a linear development of the language skills, so that "learning to read is a speech-to-print process, not one which reverses this direction and moves from print to speech" (Thonis, 1970 p.3). Stoddart & Stoddart (1968) maintain that it is easier to help second language children tackle language skills one at a time. Mills et al. (1977, p.46) strongly reiterate the point that reading should not be taught at all until second language learners "have attained sufficient command of oral language including comprehension skills." Ching (1976) also attributes the poor reading performance of bilingual children as the result of teachers pushing children into reading before they can understand English well and speak it fluently.[27]

I think the view supporting oral primacy over reading as held by those quoted above is based on unproven assumptions that oral skills and other language skills can be isolated and learned separately. There is also the implication that it is easier and more natural for learners to proceed from speaking to reading, and that what a learner can say is an indication of what he can understand. I will point out how these assumptions are unsound.

Firstly, the assumption that oral skill and other language skills can be isolated from one another and learned separately is unrealistic and artificial. As discussed in the previous section, to say that language is to be learned in the order of listening,

speaking, reading and writing is to narrow the definitions of these skills to separate units of encoding or decoding abilities, and to overlook the fact that these skills overlap one another in the process of language learning. The Bullock report strongly advocates a change in the attitude of extracting language skills from context and puts forward the view that language should be learned "as a pattern, not as an inert collection of units added serially", and that "language competence grows incrementally through an interaction of writing, talk, reading and experience, the body of resulting work forming an organic whole" (D.E.S., 1975, p.7).

Moreover, even if oral skill can be learned separately, advocates of the view that second language learners should achieve mastery in oral language before reading is introduced have not clearly defined what they mean by "mastery". This leads to the question of the extent to which the learner's oral skill should be developed before reading can be introduced.

According to Thonis (1970, p.133), "the native speaker of English is expected to possess a minimum speaking vocabulary of 2,500 words". Does this imply that second language learners have to possess a similar amount of speaking vocabulary before they are introduced to reading? How can we determine when a second language learner is ready for reading in a second language? This really appears to be quite arbitrary. In a print-oriented society of today, everyone is constantly exposed to symbols, signs, drawings and written materials that anyone can learn to read regardless of the size of his spoken vocabulary. Learning can always start from where the learner is and build on what he has possessed, and a second language learner of English can always learn oral and written English simultaneously using the two forms to support each other in developing control of English.

Secondly, the assumption that it is easier and more natural for learners to proceed from speaking to reading is probably more

appropriate for second language learners in a host language context. For instance, Stoddart & Stoddart's view that it is important that in the early stages "pupils should be able to speak an utterance correctly from memory before they attempt to read it", and that oral mastery is "a sufficiently big task in itself without the additional difficulty of learning to recognize an utterance in print at the same time" (Stoddart & Stoddart, 1978, p.9) is made with reference to teaching English to immigrant children where the target language exists in the environment.

As pointed out by Littlewood (1984), the language environment is a very determining factor in activating the process of language learning and determining the learning sequences. If the learners live in an environment where their second language is the host language, they will be exposed to the target language in a real-life situations. This means that they will have at least experienced, to some degree, "the natural stimulus to learn language that also underlies first language acquisition" (Littlewood, 1984, p.36). On the other hand, learning a second language in a foreign language environment, learners may not be so frequently exposed to the oral usage of the target language in their everyday life. In some cases, they may even have more frequent contact with the writings of the target language instead. As a result, the process of language development may vary according to the specific language environment. Language learning is motivated by functional needs and, as pointed out by Halliday (1989), speech and writing serve different functions and are used in different contexts, the learner can indeed choose the process that better suits his purposes (Goodman & Goodman, 1977). This implies that in some foreign language contexts where the learners receive more written exposure of the target language than oral ones, written language can be the starting point for language learning and form the basis for oral activities to be developed. As a matter of fact, many people in non-English speaking countries do learn English by first learning to read English then to speak and

understand spoken English (Goodman et al., 1979).

Kellermann also finds great deficiencies in practices of purely oral drills in foreign language syllabuses. She states that in a foreign language context, "oracy, without the support of the printed message, has a tendency in the long run to disappear as quickly as it came about, because it relies too much on transient recall capacities" (Kellermann, 1981, p.4). She further claims that "a saturation point in learning a foreign language by mouth alone is reached by the good literate pupil in a matter of weeks" (p.7). Kellermann's claim is based on her own experience in teaching foreign language reading rather than empirical evidence. It is, nonetheless, supported by the fact that if there is no written language in a particular culture, literacy development will be impossible.

Moreover, what Kellermann says also sheds light on the complementary relationship of speech and written language. In an environment where the support of the oral aspect of the target language is not readily found in the learner's everyday life, written language can help to sustain the learner's memory of the oral language by preserving the language form and serve for the storage and retrieval of knowledge and information that had already been committed to memory. In Strang's words, writing is a "durable record of speech" (Strang, 1970, p.13).

Further, a longitudinal study of the interrelationships of the language activities by Francis (1975) shows that it is just as likely that reading is affecting the knowledge of the spoken language as that speech may be affecting reading ability. Both Chomsky (1972) and Francis agree that learning to read changes the children's understanding of the structure of language. Those who read widely will be responding to a greater range of structures and functions than they encounter in spoken language alone. Clay (1983) and Cazdan (1974) also stress the significance of written language

in providing means for checking on one's formulation and for extending one's range of registers for producing language. The slowed-up processes needed in early reading and writing play a mirror-like role to let learners review in the "two-dimensional framework of reading and writing what was too elusive for them to observe as speakers" (Clay, 1983, p.277).

Thirdly, the assumption that what a child can say is an indication of what he can understand is found in the views of Mills et al. (1977) and Ching (1976). They stress that the teacher should not introduce reading before the learners can comprehend/understand English and have a sufficient/fluent command of oral language. This assumption overlooks the fact that many second language learners understand more than what they are able to produce. This can be illustrated by the findings of Goodman and Goodman's research study of four different populations of bilingual children reading English (Goodman & Goodman, 1978, quoted in Goodman et al. 1979). They concluded that the dialect or second language difference in speaking has little interference in reading. As seen from the story retelling tasks in the research, inappropriate pronunciations for words which are well developed throughout the text have only superficial effects in terms of gaining meaning. Even when learners missed subtlety and idiom or shifted away from English syntax in retelling, they could sometimes comprehend what they could not yet express. It is suggested by the investigators that it may be possible that some children, who for cultural reasons, are not orally productive as considered by language teachers, are able to produce written work and comprehend reading passages well. Therefore, language can indeed be developed in different ways. Speaking is not necessarily the skill to start with and learners need not be totally proficient in spoken language before they can get considerable meaning from their reading.

The ability to understand the reading text is not only a result of the reader's competence in spoken language, but many

other factors. The view that reading is an essentially "passive" skill is now contested. To regard reading as a receptive control of the language does not mean it is a passive act. In contrast to the traditional theories that the process of reading involves a sequential perception of words which are then recorded or translated into speech or silent speech, the psycholinguistic theorists see the reader as a more active, thinking agent, whose experience in understanding the environment around him helps him to approach the text with a degree of prior, though uncertain, knowledge of its content. Using his knowledge of language, his cultural experiences and his conceptualizations to get meaning from print, to develop the sampling, predicting, confirming, and correcting strategies, he tries to disentangle the message it contains in a way parallel to that when one listens to a speech (Goodman & Goodman, 1977).[28] This view is also supported by Wells (1986) who found evidence in his study that children are "predisposed" to make sense of their experience, thus in their development of literacy, they are active in searching for meaning of the unknown and solutions to problems through different strategies. This also applies to second language learners. As discussed in Section III.1 above, second language learners when faced with a new language, are in many ways like young children in their learning strategies.

In addition to the active role played by the reader in seeking meaning of the text, it is further pointed out by Smith (1973) that there is no one-to-one relationship between the meaning of a text and the surface structure of the sentences used to express it. Comprehension of the text is not dependent on the decoding of words. Meaning is determined by context rather than simply matching the text to speech.

Apart from the psycholinguistic model of reading, the schema theory model proposed by Carrell also describes comprehension of reading texts not simply as a result of the reader's competence in

spoken language but his other background knowledge as well. According to Carrell (1983), comprehension is a function of our past experience, our background knowledge, or what are sometimes more technically called our "schemata"[29]. Thus the text one reads does not by itself carry meaning. It only provides directions as to how one should retrieve or construct meaning from their own (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). From empirical research with both first language and second language learners of English, it has been found that both the learner's background knowledge of the content area of a text (termed "content schemata") and his background knowledge of the rhetorical structures of different types of text (termed "formal schemata") may affect comprehension.[30] The implication of this for second language readers is that while competence in spoken language helps in consolidating the readers' formal schemata, is not all that is needed for comprehension. Other background experiences like reading strategies in their first language or culture specific knowledge also interact in the process of comprehension.

In short, reading is a "psycholinguistic guessing game" (Goodman, 1967) as well as a matching game of the reader's existing schemata and the clues provided by the writer. It involves an interaction between thought, experience and language. Therefore, it is quite possible that a second language learner who is literate in his mother tongue will be more familiar with the strategies of such a "game", that he will find it easier to transfer these reading skills to the second language.

Cummins (1981) put forward tne linguistic interdependence theory predicting that older, more mature learners with a background of schooling in their first language will acquire cognitively demanding language skills (which include reading) more rapidly than younger learners. There is some research evidence available to support Cummins proposition and it suggests the transferability of reading ability across languages.[31] The following

are two of such research findings.

The Modiano Study (Modiano, 1968) conducted in Mexico shows that teaching children to read in their mother tongue improved reading ability in the second language (in this case, the national language, Spanish) when compared with children who first learned to read in their second language.[32] In another study involving about 130 Japanese and Vietnamese immigrant students in Toronto (Cummins et al. 1984, cited by Harley 1986), Cummins et al. indicated that scores on academic measures of the second language (English) proficiency were positively correlated with scores on academic measures of first languages (Japanese and Vietnamese) proficiency. This supports the interdependence hypothesis despite the typological differences between the first language and the second language involved.

These findings imply that reading is more than the decoding of grapheme-phoneme symbols. When a second language learner is literate in his first language, he will be able to transfer his past experience of psycholinguistic reading strategies to the new language as illustrated in the case of different typology of the two languages; and at the same time, his conceptual system as well as memory storage capacity as a more mature learner will also facilitate his learning of the language.

On the whole, the arguments above are put forward to counter the assumptions that oral skills and other language skills can be isolated and learned separately, that it is more natural and easier for second language learners to proceed from speaking to reading, and that what a learner can say is an indication of what he can understand. I have tried to show that the first assumption is a simplified view of the interactive relationships of the language skills and that the level of oral linguistic competency which is regarded as essential prior to initial reading instruction is not adequately defined; the second assumption is a sweeping view which

will vary according to the second language learner's purpose of learning the language and the context he is in; and the third assumption overlooks the interaction of the innate meaning seeking incentive of the learner with his literacy skills in first language and his other background experiences, which may enable him to understand more than he can speak in the second language. Therefore, oral language is not necessarily a prerequisite for reading to a second language learner in a foreign language context.

III.2.4 Discussion of Implications

It has been discussed in the above two sections (III.2.2 and III.2.3) that there is no fixed sequence of skills in language development in general and no primacy of oral skills over reading skills in second language learning. Indeed, it is not the aim of these discussions to prove that oral skills are not essential for second language learning. What is being shown is that the overemphasis on oral skills may make the teaching of second language in certain contexts unrealistic, unbalanced, and at the same time discourages the exploration of alternative ways of learning the language.

The discussion also shows that human language, be it written or oral, develops in a social context because of man's need to express oneself, to communicate with one another and to seek meaning about the unknown. From the observation of how children tackle language in self-teach ways, we can see that they usually do it in an integrative/whole-language approach, and sometimes they demonstrate individual preferred modes of learning. As far as second language learning is concerned, the language context and purpose play a very important part in determining the language development process. Second language learners are also active agents who do possess the linguistic competence, language-learning capabilities and past experience to go from print to meaning in a

manner parallel to the way they go from speech to meaning. The oral language skills and written language skills can always go hand in hand.

These understandings about the inter-relationship of oral language and reading in second language learning will therefore have implications for LEA as an approach when applied to second language learners with limited oral repertoire.

Firstly, since a second language should best be learned as a whole and since there is an interactive relationship in the development of the different language skills, one of the necessary elements that should be found in LEA is the integrative element. Indeed, LEA is by nature an integrative approach. The approach stimulates learners to share their experience through both productive and receptive modes. The learners' productive and receptive control of language is strengthened as they talk about their experiences, listen to one another, see their speech recorded in writing (or do their own writing) and read their own products. This puts language learning in a context, and allows different language skills to interact with each other purposefully. Therefore, LEA as an approach to teaching reading is in itself very integrative. It appears to be quite adequate as an approach to develop the language skills of second language learners integratively.

However, the question is that in the real practice of many LEA programmes, the learner's ability to communicate orally is assumed because the reading materials are the written dictation of the learner's spoken language. In other words, the ability to use the spoken language is the starting point for the approach to be introduced; and that the integration of language skills is also to be based on the learner's competence in using the oral language. This seems to contradict the claim made by many LEA advocates that the approach can start from where the learner is. There is, in

fact, a precondition behind this claim and that is the learner should have grasped a fair amount of the oral language before LEA is introduced.

Nevertheless, such an understanding of LEA, together with the worry of some teachers that if the learner lacks the oral competence to express his experience verbally, his reading materials will be characterized by limited expressive vocabulary and syntatical errors, limits the scope of the approach to be extended to wider range of learners. The principle of starting from where the learner is should not be overridden with any preconditions. More specifically, the learners' oral competence should not be a predetermining factor for LEA to be employed for second language learners.

Indeed, what the teacher can do is to guide learners in their production work according to their level and accept their work as they are even though they may appear to be unacceptable to first language speakers. At the initial stage, reading materials created need not be long and sophisticated. They can be single words or phrases as long as they carry meaning and are significant to the learners. (See further discussion on the concept of "Key vocabulary in Chapter V, Section V.1.2.1.) Moreover, if the teacher can understand the mother tongue of the learners, she can also provide the English translation of words and expressions that the learners have difficulty in expressing.

Secondly, it has been pointed out that language context and purpose play a very important part in determining the language development process. This implies that in order to serve a wider variety of second language learners, LEA should be flexible enough to accommodate the language needs of all learners.

In contexts where there is more written input of the target language than the oral one or where the second language learners

find it more comfortable in expressing themselves directly through writing than speech, learners may as well start from the written mode of expression and then proceed from there to sharing of ideas in the spoken form. At the initial stage, the type of mode from which the approach starts should not matter much; what is more important is that the teacher should encourage the learners to express meaning in an atmosphere free of anxiety.

Thirdly, the above section concludes that second language learners are active agents in language learning. As far as LEA is concerned, it recognizes the psycholinguistic ability, the language and the experiences of the readers, and puts strong emphasis on reading for meaning. As readers approach a text, they are not passively decoding the text for meaning, but they bring with them a whole range of experiences and expectations. Reading difficulty may arise when there is a mismatch between the sorts of knowledge, expectations and purposes which the reader brings to the text and the kinds of knowledge, expectations and purposes assumed by the writer. The closer the gap between the reader and the author's language, thought and culture, the easier it is for the reader to reconstruct the author's message.

Therefore, the learner's oral competence is not the only factor affecting his understanding of the written language. His past knowledge and experience also count. In other words, it is quite possible for a second language learner to understand more than he can speak. By transferring his previous literacy experience to the new language, he can quite readily start learning the language from any mode he prefers.

In summarising, the learner's limited oral language competence should not be an obstacle for adopting LEA. LEA is based on accepting the learner from where is and its integrative nature allows for greater flexibility. This together with the arguments that the language context and purpose may influence the preferred

mode of language that the second language learner would feel secure to express meaning with, and that reading is not simply decoding print to speech, but also the encoding of the reader's thoughts, knowledge and experience to print, suggest that speech is a sufficient but not necessary mode for LEA to begin with. Oral proficiency, nonetheless will facilitate the application of LEA, but should not be held as a skill to be mastered prior to the approach.

III.3 Conclusions

The present study is to explore the feasibility of using LEA to make the learning of English as a second language interesting and meaningful to students in the first year of their secondary school in Hong Kong. This chapter has, therefore, been an attempt to establish the backbone of the study. It argues that LEA does possess a sound theoretical basis to support the use of it with second language learners, especially those in a foreign language context.

The above two sections (III.1 and III.2) have attempted to examine the relevance of LEA to second language learning in two respects. Firstly, it is shown that the general principles drawn from some second language learning theories do support the basic premises of LEA. Secondly, it is also argued that oral proficiency is not necessarily a prerequisite for LEA to be applied to second language learners. These two conclusions imply that there is sufficient theoretical foundation for LEA to be applied to second language learners in different language contexts and with different level of oral competence.

Moreover, as we consider the discussions of Sections III.1.3 and III.2.4, we can see that there are certain theoretical principles of LEA which are basically the same for first language or second language learners, and these are the recognition of: learners as active learning agents; learning as an interesting, relevant and meaningful activity to the individual; whole person approach; a supportive and encouraging learning atmosphere; an integration of different language skills; and the need to relate language to the sociocultural context of the learner. At the same time, certain principles specific to second language learners in a foreign language context also evolve from the discussions, and they are: to start from where the learners are, accommodating the level of oral fluency; to be flexible enough to allow learners to start

from different modes of learning; to provide classroom "scaffolding"; to maintain a balance between communicating meaning and language accuracy; and to accept and to make use of the learners' previous literacy experience and their first language in the learning process.

The pedagogical implication of this is that an LEA programme used for first language learners cannot be transferred as it is to second language learners. There are certain areas that need to be modified and adapted for different second language situations. On the basis of the conclusions drawn in this chapter, the next chapter will establish a language experience approach specific to second language learners.

Chapter Four
The Pedagogical Basis of 2L-LEA

IV.1 Principles and Pedagogical Implications of 2L-LEA

The previous chapter has laid down the theoretical foundation for LEA as it applies to second language learners. It has been especially argued that the learners' inadequate oral language is not an obstacle to the application of LEA since oral language is not necessarily a prerequisite for the learning of written language, especially for those learning a second language in a foreign language context. In this chapter, we will take as our starting point the conclusions of Chapter Three and develop a pedagogical basis for a second language LEA (2L-LEA) in a foreign language context.

First of all, it is concluded from the previous chapter that most of the basic principles of LEA rooted in educational, linguistic and psychological foundations (as discussed in Chapter Two) converge with the ideas of the current second language learning theories in the following ways[33]:

(1) Learners as active learning agents

Like most second language learning theories which emphasize the active role of learners in learning, LEA is based on the principle that human beings are active learning agents who are born with the incentive to make sense of their experience of life. Learning is a process that a child is engaged in once he is born into this world. Through his own involvement in various experiences, he tries to find out the meaning and the underlying principles of the happenings around him.

The implication of this for pedagogy is that the teacher should not see the learners as passive receivers of knowledge. Learning activities should be geared towards the development of individuals' creativity and the active involvement of them in the exploration of meaning, rather than being spoon-fed by the teacher. The teacher is not the source or giver of knowledge, but a facilitator of learning.

(2) Learning as an interesting, relevant and meaningful activity to the individual

It is agreed in most current second language learning theories that interesting, relevant and meaningful language activities or materials will have a motivating effect on learners. LEA is based on the premise that the learners' life experience will constitute what is of immediate interest, relevance and meaning to their learning. It stresses that learning is to start from the learners' experience.

The implication of this for pedagogy is that learning should not be something that is divorced from the learners' whole experience of life, but a way of consolidating and extending that experience. Activities which allow individuals to communicate through various means (oral, written or other creative means) about their experiences, to produce materials to enhance their own learning and to further develop certain shared experiences as a group will enrich the learners' experience and make learning interesting, relevant and meaningful.

(3) A whole person approach -- recognition of a balanced growth of individuals

Current second language learning theories put more and more stress on the importance of treating the learner as a

whole person rather than seeing language learning as only related to the learner's cognitive or linguistic abilities. LEA can rightly be regarded as a whole person approach in that it values the individual as a whole. The cognitive, linguistic and affective aspects of the individual are recognised as of equal significance to their learning.

The pedagogical implication of this is that the teacher is to accept the individual as he is and value what he has to bring to the class -- his thoughts, experiences, language (including both his first language and second language) and feelings. Language development is not to be isolated from the growth of the individual as a whole person. Learning activities and the environment should encourage a balanced development and expression of the cognitive, linguistic and affective elements of the individuals, and at the same time allow them to develop their own potential. For instance, the production of one's own reading material provides a chance for the learner to express his personal feelings and experience and to exercise his cognitive, linguistic and creative abilities, which in turn will bring a sense of achievement. All these contribute to the development of the learner as a whole person.

(4) A supportive and encouraging atmosphere

There is a growing awareness that affective factors play an important role in the second language learning process. A supportive and encouraging learning atmosphere will lower the affective filter of the learner thus facilitating learning. Although the learning atmosphere appears to lie very much in the hands of the teacher, the supportive and encouraging elements rooted in the basic principles of the learning approach will lead to a more penetrating effect. As gathered from the three premises discussed earlier, LEA starts with and

values the individual. The respect of an individual's uniqueness and the appreciation of his contribution to his own learning, as well as to that of the whole class, are the major supportive and encouraging elements of the approach.

The implication for pedagogy is that learning activities should reassure learners of their worth rather than inhibit their expression. The teacher's role is to help, support and encourage the learners to be actively involved in the learning process but not to pass verdict or value judgement on the learners. The effort of the learners should be appreciated and appropriate feedback should be given to help them improve on their work. The activities and teacher's attitude can also have a positive influence on the learners' acceptance and appreciation of one another's work. This will greatly enhance an anxiety-free atmosphere and help to build up the individual's confidence and self-image.

(5) An integration of different language skills

As discussed previously, the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing overlap each other in the language learning process. To develop second language competence, an integrative approach should be adopted so that the target language is learned as a whole, not as artificially isolated skills. LEA is basically an integrative approach as the approach stresses the purposeful use of language in self expression and communication acts. These are the means through which the productive and receptive language skills interact with each other.

The pedagogical implication is that language activities should be geared towards an integrative development of the different language skills. Purposeful communicative activities like sharing experience stories and getting them published

always involve an interaction of different language skills as the learners have to exercise these different language skills by communicating in the language -- sharing of experiences and ideas (by talking or writing, with the language support provided by the teacher), recording their ideas (on tape or by writing), and making sense of what others try to convey (through listening or reading).

(6) Relating language to the sociocultural context of the learner

As language is the expression and definition of culture, language disembedded from the sociocultural context will be difficult for the learners to learn and relate. Learning a second language should thus start from relating the language to contexts that the learners are familiar with, so that the sociocultural elements will not be an obstacle to comprehension. LEA is rooted in the premise that the learner's own language repertoire is the basis for him to extend his language experience. In other words, learning starts from the language familiar and relevant to the learner's experience and sociocultural background rather than from vocabulary and syntax disembedded from the learner's experience and thus beyond his comprehension.

The pedagogical implication of this is that learning materials will be best comprehended and learned if they are related to the sociocultural background of the learners. This is especially true for learners at the initial stage of their second language learning. Self-constructed materials created on the basis of the learners' own language experience will be most meaningful and comprehensible.

As these six basic principles are in line with the elements considered to be desirable in facilitating second language learning and in harmony with LEA philosophy and methodology, they contribute

to the characteristics of what we shall call 2L-LEA and indeed form part of the cornerstone of the approach advocated. Nevertheless, in situations where the second language learners have previous literacy experience and where they are in a foreign language environment with insufficient or no natural oral input of the target language, the conventional LEA is inadequate in that:

(a) it presumes that learners are able to express themselves orally in the target language;

(b) it presumes a consistent natural input of target language from the environment which will gradually shape the learners' language accuracy without being monitored by the teacher; and

(c) the approach does not refer to the value nor the means of drawing upon the learners' first language or previous literacy experience.

In other words, a 2L-LEA is to distinguish itself from the conventional LEA in the following areas:

(1) To start from where the learners are, disregarding the level of their oral fluency

Although the conventional LEA also claims to start from where the learners are, disregarding their linguistic abilities, the underlying assumption is that the learners are at least capable of talking about their experiences. This is understandable as the reading materials are supposed to be the written record of the learners' oral experience stories; and as far as the target learners of the approach are concerned, they are mostly young children, illiterate adults and remedial learners learning to read their first language or second language learners learning the language in a host language context. (Please refer to more detailed discussion in Chapter Two.)

However, to apply the approach to second language learners with limited oral language repertoire, the 2L-LEA has

to stick firmly to the principle of "starting from where the learner is" rather than using the phrase as a convenient cliche. By this it means there is no predetermined level of the required oral competence, for 2L-LEA is to start from where the learner's language is.

The teacher should be able to guide learners in their production work according to their level. At the initial stage, the reading materials created by learners need not be long and sophisticated. If the learner is not ready to express his experiences in sentence form, single words or phrases are accepted. Ashton-Warner, who inspired many American educators and teachers of the power of learning through a learner-centred experience approach, also taught her young Maori students to read by building upon a "Key Vocabulary" of words that were personally significant in the lives of individual children (Ashton-Warner, 1963). It is also pointed out by Wallace that although reading materials can range from simple one-word messages to fairly long texts, what matters is not how long the text is but whether the content is meaningful to the individual learner (Wallace, 1986).

(2) To be flexible enough to allow learners to start from different modes of learning

What the conventional LEA advocates is a learning process started with the sharing of experiences orally and then proceeds from there to the written representation of the oral language. However, as discussed in Chapter Three, language learners may use different strategies to learn a language, and different individuals may have their own preferred mode (written or spoken) of language learning. This together with the specific language environment the learners are in and their different functional needs in learning the language, imply that the 2L-LEA should be flexible enough to allow the

learners to develop their language competence in a process best suited to them.

The pedagogical implication of this is that a 2L-LEA teacher should be sensitive enough in identifying the needs and the mode of language learning that the learners prefer as a class and as individuals so as to help learners acquire the language in ways that are best suited to them. Learners should be given the chance to express their experiences in their preferred way (through talking, writing, or other creative activities like drawing or role playing). For instance, if the learners find it more comfortable to express themselves through writing than speech, they may as well start from the written mode of expression and then proceed from there to sharing of ideas in the spoken form. Groupings of learners of similar or different preferred mode of language learning for different language activities may also help to extend this kind of flexibility and allow learners to learn from one another.

(3) To provide a classroom "scaffolding" needed to compensate for the lack of natural input and interaction

As discussed in Chapter Three, learning a language requires the learners' own initiative as well as the "scaffolding" provided by language users of the target language. This kind of "scaffolding" which is essential to shape learners' usage of the target language is very much lacking in a foreign language context with limited natural input and interaction with users of the language.

In a conventional LEA classroom, as individuals share their experience stories, there exists a mutual interest between those who talk and those who listen. Nevertheless, in a 2L-LEA classroom, the learners' limited oral language will

require more explicit negotiation of meaning in the form of rephrasing, supplying the appropriate vocabulary or asking questions for clarification. In other words, the teacher or other learners' feedback in the sharing and listening process will greatly help learners to convey or to comprehend one another's message and serve as a useful vehicle for meaningful language learning. A friendly atmosphere is essential for this kind of classroom "scaffolding" to be supportive and not inhibiting.

(4) To maintain a balance between communicating meaning and language accuracy

With the stress of the current second language learning theories on the communicative function of language, learners' attention is directed to language use more than language form. The conventional LEA also advocates the focus of learners' attention on the communication of language meaning, thus as the learners convey meaning through their experience stories, their work is accepted fully without any correction by the teacher. It is held that the mechanical accuracy will come with maturity.

It is apparent that an overemphasis on language accuracy will focus learners' attention on language form and will also have an inhibiting effect on learners' incentive and creativity in using the language. However, with insufficient exposure to the natural input of the target language, it is unrealistic to expect the second language learners to be able to correct their own mistakes in the long run.

As discussed above, the scaffolding stage is quite essential for learners with a limited language repertoire to gain support and feedback in communicating meaning. Thus correction in a 2L-LEA classroom should be acceptable provided

that a positive way of correction is adopted and the atmosphere is uncritical. Moreover, some second language learners who are literate in their first language are quite capable of dealing with the abstract rules of the language, thus correction of the language form by the teacher may have a positive effect on their learning if this is what they expect and are ready to accept.

Thus it seems practicable for the 2L-LEA teacher to direct the learner's attention on one or two points of language form in his work after the negotiation of meaning, as a follow-up activity. A selective approach in dealing with the language errors should be adopted. As errors often represent normal stages in the development of communication skills,[34] the teacher can indeed decide upon the sort of errors that she is going to point out to the learner as she deems it suitable for the stage.

(5) To make the individual's previous literacy experience and his first language contributive to the learning process

Whether the second language learners' previous literacy experience and their first language are contributive to the their second language learning is a controversial question with conflicting views (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). Nevertheless, as discussed in Section III.2.3 earlier, research evidence has shown that there is a positive transfer of learners' cognitively demanding language skills in their first language to their learning of a new language.

As one of the major premises of the conventional LEA is the recognition of the value of the learners' language and experience. The implication of this for 2L-LEA is that a second language learner's previous literacy experience and the knowledge of his first language are what make him as he is. It

will be unrealistic to presume that by eliminating his first language in the second language learning process, his learning of the target language will not be influenced (no matter positively or negatively) by his previous first language experience. The assumption "that students are blank paper, empty vessels and that the role of the teacher is to fill them with the right language (correct standard English) devalues the mother tongue and the learner's own pre-existing knowledge of how language works in the process of learning" (Baynham, 1983, p.10).

This being the case, it will be more practical and realistic for the 2L-LEA to accept the learners' first language experience and use it as a positive means in the second language learning process. For instance, the permission of learners to use their first language in sharing ideas and feelings which they are incapable of expressing in the target language will lower their anxiety level. Moreover, with the help of the teacher's translation, there will be a greater incentive for them to learn the translated expressions of their experiences in the target language as these are personally significant and meaningful to them. The students, though they may not know much of the patterns of the target language, know a lot about language and its uses. It has been pointed out that very often, instead of interference, knowledge of the mother tongue is the learner's main strength and source of information about how the puzzling new language might work (Bickerston, 1976).

IV.2 Summary

The chapter has established the pedagogical basis of a 2L-LEA which will cater especially for second language learners in a foreign language context. It is shown that the principles are basically in line with the conventional LEA with its recognition of learners as active learning agents; learning as an interesting, relevant and meaningful activity to the individual; a whole person approach aiming at a balanced growth of individuals; a supportive and encouraging atmosphere; the need for an integration of different language skills; and the need to relate language to the sociocultural context of the learner. Nevertheless, it possesses principles which are specific to the second language learning in a foreign language situation in that the approach should start from where the learners are; it should disregard the level of their oral fluency; it should be flexible enough to allow learners to start from different modes of learning; it should provide a classroom "scaffolding" needed to compensate for the lack of natural input and interaction; a balance between communicating meaning and language accuracy should be maintained; and the individual's previous literacy experience and his first language should be tapped in the learning process.

The next chapter will be an attempt to concretize the principles of 2L-LEA in the context of Hong Kong. A proposal for a 2L-LEA programme will be made with reference to the target group of this study -- the secondary one students in Hong Kong. The anticipated strengths and difficulties of the methods employed in the programme will be discussed.

Chapter Five
Application of 2L-LEA to the Secondary One English Classroom in the Context of Hong Kong

V.1 The Relevance of 2L-LEA to the Target Group

It has been identified in Section I.4 of Chapter One that there are different areas that need change or further consideration for more effective learning to take place in the secondary one English classroom in the context of Hong Kong. These areas are:

(1) the appropriate choice and use of textbooks;
(2) the relevance of the syllabus to the students' level and needs as well as to the sociocultural environment;
(3) the correspondence of the format of classroom organization to the pedagogy;
(4) the teacher's recognition of the significance of the students as individuals with their own needs, previous knowledge and language experience, and the contribution of these to the learning process;
(5) the supportive elements available to build up students' confidence in using the language; and
(6) the role of mother tongue in the second language learning process.

In Chapter Four, principles of a 2L-LEA are drawn up as a result of an exploration into (1) the basic foundations and relevant studies of LEA; and (2) the theoretical basis for the approach to be applied to second language learning. These principles show that the foundations of 2L-LEA and the pedagogical implications it offers address quite readily the areas of concern listed for the the target group of this study in the following ways. On the basis of 2L-LEA, irrelevant and uninteresting textbooks will not be a problem to students as reading materials

are to be produced by students themselves. The materials so produced and follow-up activities have relevance to the students' sociocultural environment. Classroom organization will be student-centred, differing from the traditional way of teacher instructing the whole class. Students are considered as individuals with their own needs, interests and background being respected. Supportive elements such as negotiation of meaning and due recognition of the students' work are maintained as essential to 2L-LEA to enhance an anxiety-free atmosphere for maximum learning to take place. Moreover, the role of mother tongue is considered as a source of language experience that can be contributive to the learning process of second language. In short, the principles that 2L-LEA is based on meet the areas of concern of the English learning situation in the secondary one classroom of Hong Kong. This justifies the proposal for a 2L-LEA programme for the target group of our study.

The rest of this chapter consists of a practical proposal for a 2L-LEA programme for the target group of our study, i.e. first year secondary students learning English as their second language in the context of Hong Kong -- a city where English is an official language but not the everyday language with immediate relevance to the majority of the population. An action research report of the implementation of the 2L-LEA in a secondary school of Hong Kong will be presented in the following chapter and the feasibility of the proposed 2L-LEA programme in a lower secondary English classroom in Hong Kong will be discussed.

V.2 Proposal for a 2L-LEA Programme

It has been pointed out in Chapter Two that there is no canon for LEA lessons. Different teachers/researchers may put different emphases on different activities according to the type of students, the learning context and the teacher's/researcher's own choice. Among the major proponents of LEA, Allen & Allen (1976) are concerned mainly with providing various experience activities, Veatch et al. (1979) focus chiefly on developing key vocabulary, Stauffer (1975 & 1980) stresses the importance of directing the reading-thinking process through inquiry, and Hall (1981) tends to concentrate more on the usefulness of experience stories. Nevertheless, the common point amongst the different emphases is the utilization of the learner's language experience for the production of his own materials for reading and as the starting point for further language learning activities. In this study, the acceptance of practices for incorporation or modification into the secondary one English classrooms in Hong Kong is based on the ideas and activities gathered from the review of the LEA literature and the practical situation of English learning in lower secondary schools of Hong Kong. Most importantly, the proposal is in line with the pedagogical implications for 2L-LEA discussed in Chapter four.

V.2.1 Getting Started

To introduce 2L-LEA into the English classroom, certain preparations have to be made so that the school, the students and the classroom environment are ready for the programme. Since the proposed 2L-LEA programme focusses mainly on methods and activities at the classroom level, readiness of the students and classroom environment will be discussed in greater detail than that of the school as a whole.

V.2.1.1 Readiness of the School

Since the principles and pedagogical implications of 2L-LEA for English lessons in the first year of secondary schools of Hong Kong are quite new to the ethos of Hong Kong schools, the programme, like most cases of curriculum innovation, will lead to the threats of extra work, anxiety, confusion and backlash among those involved in the school (Nisbet, 1975). It is, however, beyond the scope of the present study to go into details of different means of curriculum innovation. What is important to note is that the effectiveness of innovation depends very much on a felt need of solutions to a perceived problem in the curriculum. The first task of the innovator of 2L-LEA is, therefore, to share the rationale of the programme with reference to the felt need for change in areas as listed in the beginning of this chapter, so as to gain understanding and support from those involved. Then comes the need to develop structures and make various preparations which will promote innovation in the curriculum. At this stage, discussion is very important so that the innovator and the defender(s) of the conventional practice will work out the structures best suitable for the particular school context. In the planning and actual implementation of the programme, the innovator and those involved should be ready to accept comments, criticisms and make constant evaluation, so that modifications, renewal and improvement can be a continual process for the programme to be effective.

V.2.1.2 Readiness of the Students

Students should be psychologically prepared for the programme because 2L-LEA is very different from the traditional classroom instruction in that the English textbook is not their only reading material, and that the lesson format and activities are more flexible and student-centred. The image of the teacher will also be different from the conventional image of a teacher in Chinese society. The latter is usually one who assumes an authoritative

role, passes knowledge to the students and expects respect and obedience (Man, 1972). Therefore students need some orientation to these changes in order to know how to respond in these lessons.

The following is a suggestion of a set of orientation activities. This can be started by a free association exercise. Firstly, the students are invited to come to the blackboard and write down the immediate thought (in a word or a phrase) or draw a figure which comes to their mind associated to the term `English'. If they have difficulty in expressing the thought in English, Chinese is acceptable. After this, students are asked to go back to their seats, take out a piece of paper and try to categorize the words or drawings on the blackboard into 3 categories. At this point, the teacher writes down the English translation beside the words written in Chinese on the blackboard, and then copies down the words on the blackboard to be reproduced later for students as vocabulary relevant to them. Then students compare and discuss in pairs the ways of their classification; after which, they are asked to write in a sentence what they think of learning English on a strip of paper. Again, either English or Chinese is accepted. The teacher collects the unidentified strips of paper and redistributes them so that each student gets one. The students are invited to read out what is written on the paper strips one by one. The teacher then shares her own past experience as a student learning English. The strips of paper are then collected by the teacher and edited (i.e. ordered and translated, if in Chinese), typed and printed for the students as the material for discussion in the next lesson.

These orientation activities can achieve different purposes and are in line with the 2L-LEA principle of treating the learner as an active learning agent who should be the centre of the classroom. Inviting the students to come to the blackboard and write on it encourages active participation of the students, as well as providing them with a space to extend themselves. In other

words, it has a symbolic meaning that the teacher does not have the exclusive right to write on the blackboard; the students instead of the teacher should be the centre of the classroom. The implication is particularly significant for the target group of this study because of the deep-rooted Chinese image of the teacher being the authority. Open discussion, though not unheard of, is never a common feature in classrooms. This is especially true if the language used for discussion is to be in oral English, which the students lack. Thus before students can feel at ease with the format of open discussion in the class, written expression or drawings of their thoughts and feelings is less inhibiting.

As students try to put the words on the blackboard into categories, they are given a chance to think about the words, to compare them as well as to see them carrying meanings rather than simply combinations of the letters of the alphabet of a foreign language. The teacher's translation of the words written in Chinese into English makes these "new" words especially significant and personal to those who produce them in Chinese. The following discussion in pairs allows students to see how others think. As there is no right or wrong version of how one categorizes the words, it is purely an exercise of comparing and respecting the different ways that people think and deal with things.

When the students are asked to write down what they think about learning English, this will probably conjure up many past experiences to them. As the trustful and supportive element in the class is still at its initial stage, the students are not asked to identify themselves on the strips of paper so that they will be more confident to express their true feelings. Besides, using a written exercise at this stage will help to lower the anxiety level which is more likely to be created if it is done orally. The acceptance of both Chinese and English will provide the teacher with an idea of the competence and confidence of the class in using English as a whole. As students read out the written statements on

the strips of paper, this provides a chance for reading aloud and listening to others, through which the students can see that everyone's feelings and opinions are respected. At the same time, they also realize how their classmates may have experiences that echo or differ from theirs.

The teacher's sharing of her personal experiences of learning English reflects the degree of openness of the teacher. This will have a direct influence on the students as to their own openness of their personal experiences and feelings. The teacher's sharing serves to indicate that learning is not just something to do with one's ability, it involves many factors and is interrelated with the development of the whole person. This activity allows the students to see that the teacher is also a human being like them who had experienced difficulties or excitements in the learning process. This realization will help to draw closer the gap between the teacher and the students.

With the students' vocabulary and drawings associated with "English" and statements on their opinions and feelings about learning English being edited and printed, the teacher can use them as the first reading materials for the class. The students will be glad to find that they have been contributing to the materials and that their contributions are valued. It is also the time that the teacher can ask the students to reflect and discuss among themselves what they have been doing so far, and then explain the essence of 2L-LEA to the class. This is a chance for both the teacher and the students to provide feedback to each other so that they will have an idea of where they are going. The illustration indicates that orientation exercises are to give students a taste of what 2L-LEA is and to create in them a readiness to learn with the new approach. (See other ideas of activities which can be adopted for orientation purposes in Morgan & Rinvolucri, 1983; Bond, 1986; Pfeiffer & Jones, 1978).

V.2.1.3 Readiness of the Classroom

It is apparent that the classroom reflects the kind of instruction and activities being used. It would be ideal if there is a special classroom allocated for 2L-LEA lessons, where desks and chairs are no longer kept in neat rows, but can be rearranged easily to suit various activities, so that children can interact with one another and their language experience can flow. The 2L-LEA classroom should be a place of interest and warmth where the students enjoy being, have a sense of belonging, and where discussions, sharing, discovering, learning and thinking can take place. Happy colours, homely decorations, easily movable desks and chairs, areas for displaying interesting books and students' work .... can all contribute to a pleasant physical environment for various student-centred activities to take place (see suggested classroom plans in Calvert, 1973; Veatch et al., 1979).

Nevertheless, the availability of space is quite a serious problem in many schools in Hong Kong. Therefore, if it is too ambitious to ask for a special 2L-LEA classroom, the teacher has to be creative in making the most out of the conventional classroom. Decorations and displays do not occupy too much space. The teacher can also mobilize the students to decorate the classroom. Group activity is not at all impossible with desks and chairs arranged in rows. What is needed is a plan of how students will move and arrange themselves in groups of different numbers with minimum disturbance of the furniture. A mutual understanding between the teacher and the students of this plan can help the smooth running of the activities. It is undeniable that a suitable physical environment can facilitate the 2L-LEA activities, but environmental factors should not be the essence for the success of the activities. A creative use of the environment the students are given and an exploration of other space available for use (e.g. playground, school hall) is what the teacher should concentrate on.

V.2.2 Ways to Help Students Create Their Own Reading Materials

The essential element in 2L-LEA is to use materials produced by students themselves as materials for reading and various language activities. The following are suggestions of various ways that can be used in a 2L-LEA programme to help students create materials in English which are meaningful and interesting to them; and through the process, their confidence in communicating in English as well as the development of them as a whole person is enhanced.

It may appear at first sight that the first three methods suggested (i.e. key vocabulary method, directed writing method and experience story method) are more central to LEA, because of their uniqueness and frequent coverage in language experience literature; whereas the latter two (i.e. creative writing method and inquiry method) seem more peripheral as they are general techniques of active learning. The inclusion of the latter two as 2L-LEA methods is mainly based on the following two considerations:

(1) It is one of the conclusions of Chapter Two that with secondary school students, more independent reading and writing activities are to be introduced and that there should be a gradual diminution of context-support in reading materials, thus creative writing and inquiry activities can be utilized as ways of extending the language experience of the students.

(2) As topics for both creative writing and inquiry activities are initiated by the students' own interests and that the final written work they produce can be used as teaching materials, these methods are very much in line with the principles of 2L-LEA. They should thus be employed in the 2L-LEA programme.

As far as the order of the methods listed below is concerned,

it does not imply a difference in the level of difficulty, so the methods need not be introduced in any fixed order. Whether an activity is difficult lies not in the method but in the actual task assigned, and the sophistication of the content of the learning materials depends on the contribution of the students themselves and not entirely on the method. Nevertheless, the first three methods do allow more opportunities for the teacher to provide classroom scaffolding for the students in producing their learning materials, whereas the latter two methods allow students a greater independence in the process as well as an opportunity to consolidate and extend their language experience. In other words, the first three methods may be more suitable for the early stage of the programme when students are not yet confident in communicating with the language; but at the same time they are still applicable to students with more mature command of the language. The amount of classroom scaffolding needed depends on the maturity of the language competence of students.

Moreover, the suggestions of activities under each method are not exhaustive. The teacher should be flexible and make variations according to the progress and the unique characteristics of the class. Apart from the activites mentioned here, other supportive activities should go hand in hand with them (see Section V.2.3 which follows) so that they complement and supplement each other.

V.2.2.1 Key Vocabulary Method

Apart from paralinguistic elements, words are the basic language units which one uses to express oneself. As discussed in previous chapters, both Paulo Freire (1972) and Ashton-Warner (1963) see the significant impact of certain words on their learners. They conclude that people very often have strong and unexpressed feelings towards particular words. It is important for the teacher and the students to discover the words which mean most to them and start building up their vocabulary from these

personally significant words.

An exercise under key vocabulary method can be started by asking students to agree on a context from which words are to be derived. For example, if they choose to compare their lives now as secondary school students and their lives before as primary school students, they can then be asked to write down 5 (a flexible number) emotional or idea words or phrases that sum up their lives now and a further five to sum up their lives six years ago (i.e. roughly the time when the students are six, again the choice of year is flexible). As the students are writing, the teacher walks around and helps those who have difficulty in putting down the words in English. Then students are to form pairs and explain the reasons for their choice of words. They can change partners when they have finished.

Key vocabulary exercises need not be limited to emotional laden words. It can be simply asking students to list all or some of their most treasured objects in their pockets/school bags. These lists can then be shuffled and picked at random by students who will guess whose list they have and tell the class why. Calvert (1973) terms these less emotionally laden words "interest words", but since they are still words chosen by or of personal significance to the individuals, such a distinction is not made in this study. (For other suggestions of key vocabulary activities, please see Veatch et al., 1979; Morgan & Rinvolucri, 1986.)

These key vocabulary activities are thought to be most helpful to the secondary one students at the initial stage of their 2L-LEA programme, as they can start learning to see the relevance of English to them and communicating meaning on the basis of their fragmented knowledge and limited oral repertoire of the language. These key vocabulary activities help them learn words that are significant to them personally. During the process of listening to others sharing their lists of words, some words may also trigger

off their thought or feelings, making the words significant to them too.

V.2.2.2 Directed Writing Method

This method is to help students express their thoughts and feelings on topics or personally significant matters through words, phrases or sentence patterns. It is very suitable for the target students of this study who are insecure in talking in English, because it allows them to think and write down their ideas before they talk; and the method also provides them with guided help in writing before they can do their own free writing.

An activity using this method is to ask students to supply responses they think are most appropriate for blanks left in one or a number of statement(s) about certain personally significant matters. These statements may be derived from materials already produced by students or through certain experience activities, e.g. "I am a person who is _____, who likes _____, who wants _____, who needs _____, who fears _____, who hopes for _____, and who says _____." (adapted from Galyean, 1977, p.147). When each student has copied down the statement(s) and supplied the word(s) from their own knowledge, the word bank (see Section V.2.3.1) or with the help of the teacher's translation of their intended word(s) into English, groups of 4 to 6 students will sit together and read their responses to each other. After each student has read his responses, this can be followed by a validation exercise which invites students to ask questions for clarification of meaning and to comment on the answers they expect or do not expect to hear from the other persons. The teacher can then collect the written work of the students, mark them (see Section V.2.4.1 for suggestions for the correction of mistakes), note the most common mistakes among the students and decide upon some follow-up exercises to practise certain language structures. This may also be followed by asking students to re-edit their work, draw a self portrait or supply a

photograph of oneself to accompany the writing, and have all the students' work put together and published as a book of the class. (See Section V.2.3.4 for further discussion on follow-up activities.)

Exercises like this (Galyean, 1976; Kennedy & Roeder, 1973) can be structured to help insecure speakers of English to talk about themselves or certain personally relevant subjects. They can also help to develop specific writing skills or practise narrowly defined syntactic patterns. This takes some anxiety off students by focussing not simply on talking or writing but on self-expression within a meaningful context. The validation stage provides a chance for students to negotiate for meaning and give feedback to each other. This may help students to reflect upon the way meaning is conveyed, enhance interpersonal understanding among students, generate a supportive atmosphere and let the individual gain a deeper insight into himself. All of these may lead to a whole-person growth. As far as language development is concerned, skills of writing, speaking, listening and reading are all involved, providing an integrative practice of the language.

V.2.2.3 Experience Story Method

Storytelling is "the most ancient and compelling of human activities" (Morgan & Rinvolucri, 1983, p.1). Indeed, story-telling is not necessarily limited to telling folk tales from one's memory or reading stories from story books. It is indeed an activity that human beings are doing everyday as people describe a special experience to a friend, share an anecdote with colleagues, report an accident to the policeman, crack a joke with classmates, chat about special happenings of the day with family members or record a strange dream in the diary. According to Stauffer (1972, p.154), "experience" encompasses "an individual's perceptual and conceptual world, his interests, curiosities, and creativity, his culture, and his capacity to adjust, learn, and use." Therefore,

the term "experience story" is used here to refer to any sort of story that is of relevance to the experience of the student, be it fictitious or real. This method is particularly significant to 2L-LEA because apart from relating language to meaning and context, the storytelling experience is very much inherent in the everyday interaction of all human beings.

Experience story method can be conducted in groups or as individuals (Hall, 1981). As an individual activity, the teacher can assign some time for an individual student to tell an experience story. The choice and the length of the story is up to the individual, as far as he feels comfortable in the task. The teacher will record the story either by taking it down on a piece of paper or using a tape recorder. She will also provide support and negotiate meaning as the student hesitates or switches language codes, by various means, like asking questions for clarification, rephrasing, translating or supplying possible vocabulary. When the student has finished telling the story, the teacher will read him the dictated version of the story and ask for validation or replay the tape for the student to listen. The teacher may ask the student to copy the dictated story into his own workbook, or type the transcription of the tape for the students. The story then becomes the reading material for the student. He can draw picture(s) to accompany it and share it with friends and family. It can be also used for further teaching purposes.

In a group experience story session, a shared experience of the group will be used as the basis for collaborative talk in the group. The shared experience can be based on activities that have taken place, like a school outing, sports day, a drama exercise (see Allen & Allen, 1976 for suggestions of experience activities; and Maley & Duff, 1982 for drama exercises); or based on stimulus materials like an experience story told by the teacher (Morgan & Rinvolucri, 1983), a film/videotape, or a controversial issue / problem affecting the students (Stocker, 1970). The students are

asked to tell the experience story by a co-operative effort or talk about their feelings, reflections and responses to the stimulus materials together.

The teacher can facilitate the collaborative talk by writing certain related vocabulary or expressions on the blackboard beforehand, asking questions to elicit ideas or providing language help during the process if necessary. The degree of scaffolding given by the teacher will be determined by the language level of the students. The way of recording the story can be by the teacher's writing the ideas offered on the blackboard, so that every one can read them; or by recording the whole process on a tape recorder, which will be played back to the students afterwards. As students become more used to the experience story method, they can take turns or choose their own secretary to record their experience stories.

Various follow-up activities can be used. The teacher can ask the students to copy down the group experience story on the blackboard into their own workbooks, or take the cassette away to transcribe the experience story or the collaborative talk as a whole and have it printed for each one of the group, or ask students to rewrite the group experience story into their own workbooks by listening to the recording a few times. The learning materials produced in these ways will be used for further language practice exercises.

The experience story method can allow students much freedom to express their ideas in whatever way they choose. Even though the secondary one students may not have sufficient oral English to tell a story on their own, they can tell a short story with the scaffolding support of the teacher or of other students in a group activity. The activity will not increase the anxiety level of the students because the experience story is contributed by the students themselves, the focus is on communicating meaning; and in

the process, negotiation of meaning is going on in a natural way as ordinary people do in their everyday interaction. As the ideas offered by the students will be produced for them as reading materials, the motivation to work on it will be correspondingly high. The materials so produced will be more personal, comprehensive, and socioculturally meaningful and relevant as compared to passages or stories in set coursebooks; and the students may also find it easier to relate to structural practice exercises as follow-up activities. In addition, there will be a sense of achievement when they read their own works or show them to parents and friends, especially when these stories are compiled into a book or books.

However, the greatest disadvantage of this method is the way of recording experience stories. Dictating the words of the students can be slow and if the activity is held in a group, it may even slow down the natural way of interaction. A tape recorder will no doubt ease the problem, it will nevertheless take a great deal of the teacher's time for tape transcription. Besides, questions about editing the taped material also arise -- how much and what are to be included? And to what extent, if there is to be any, should the teacher's correction of the language go?

As far as the way of recording is concerned, the teacher should take into consideration various objective and subjective factors (e.g. the equipment available, the classroom environment, her style of work, the students' opinion, the specific objectives of the session etc.) and decide with her own discretion. As for the questions about editing the student offered material, they will be discussed in Section V.2.4.1 below.

Another disadvantage of the method may be raised about the possibility of the more articulate and confident students dominating in a group experience storytelling session. But as far as group dynamics is concerned, the students with the above

mentioned tendencies may usually be controlled by peers either overtly or through skilful manouvering. Moreover, with the confidence gained from the alternative of individual experience story activity and the atmosphere of acceptance and support in the classroom, the insecure or shy students may gradually find that their hesitant or monosyllabic responses are appreciated and valued, and this will surely reinforce them to greater participation.

V.2.2.4 Creative Writing Method

According to Clay (1983) creative writing refers to writing which starts from the learner's own ideas and discoveries. It is the generative nature of the activity that brings joy and elation to the creator.

There are numerous ways of motivating creative writing.(See Kennedy & Roeder, 1973; Hennings, 1978; Graves, 1983; SCDC National Writing Project Newsletter published since 1985.) An interesting topic and a purpose are often the basic elements for motivating creative writing. Current events from newspapers, magazines, radio, and television; experiences within the family, the school; materials from library and within the curriculum etc. can be used to evoke the students' response. Students also tend to respond readily to writing with a purpose, such as writing articles for a class or school newspaper/magazine or writing letters to someone. In other words, the presence of a real reader is essential.

Therefore, in the creative writing method, the stimulus or the topic of creative writing can be either chosen by the student, the class or the teacher. During the process of creative writing, the learner will have his own choice of words, ideas, grammar, punctuation, and way of presentation. The content may be nonfiction or fiction, documentary or imaginative, expository or narrative. Similar to the experience story method, creative writing method is

very much an activity relating language to the uniqueness of the person using it -- his experience and indeed his whole person. The only difference is that the former is an oral act which allows space for classroom scaffolding and interaction to shape the language and meaning; whereas the latter is an independent writing act which allows the student more time to formulate ideas and to experiment with flexibility on the convention of writing.

Drawing to accompany the writing should be widely encouraged. The reason for this given by Stauffer (1980, p.150) is: "Drawing reveals not only artistic ability but also self. The medium provides a means of expression, a way of projecting concepts by form symbolism rather than by words." Thus drawing can be very supportive to what is written especially when the student finds it difficult to express certain concepts in words. Stocker (1970) also suggests an LEA programme designed to begin by giving the students the option of completing tasks with more drawing and shorter writing, then progressing to longer writing and less artwork, for artwork has "the greatest potential for freeing students to respond as individuals and with possibly fewest negative prior experiences", as there is no right and wrong in artwork (Stocker, 1970, p.5).

Creative writing has both psychological and pedagogical advantages. It allows each student an opportunity for personal expression. Specific language practice can be built into these individual writing exercises, for example writing about childhood memories practises past tense. Sharing each other's writing also provides students new and interesting perspectives, as well as new vocabulary and word patterns.

Apart from the satisfaction gained during the process of creative writing, the creator also needs the appreciation of the others on the finished product. Knowing one's writing is enjoyed by others is a powerful source of motivation and pleasure. In the case

of Hong Kong, the students should have experienced in their first language (i.e. Chinese) literacy experience, the joy of using language or seeing language used creatively and functionally. The joy of creative writing and authorship in English, their second language, nevertheless, is often spoiled by the students' experience of submitting the work to be marked. The association of writing with mistakes is the cause of loss of spontaneity, a painful self-consciousness of failure and a reluctance to be creative and adventurous with ideas and the language. From the perspective of the teacher, they too find it difficult to help students' writings on the spot, especially when the whole class is writing; and it is often time-consuming for this to be done out of the class. This is also a reason why many teachers in the conventional English classroom dread to think about correcting written work of students.

Therefore, the way of correction in 2L-LEA is a very sensitive issue. With a new way of looking at mistakes and a focus on the way of correcting (see later discussion in Section V.2.4.1), this problem may be eased to a large extent.

V.2.2.5 Inquiry Method

As students become more independent in using the language, an enriched growth of their language experience is needed. Instructions and learning based on the materials within the life experience of the students help to provide the foundation for further fuller and richer learning. Inquiry is the method to lead the students to widen their scope of experience and to explore the great wealth of knowledge around them by more independent reading. As Calvert puts it, "Language experience tends to fuse into independent reading and to be inseparable from it", and independent reading of published materials is "a logical development from language experience activities", for once the student can write, he can read his own stories and those of his peers,and he is then

better able to select freely from published materials (Calvert, 1973, pp.116-117).

Inquiry is often a process evoked from the students' curiosity in finding out about something. In an individual inquiry task, the topic can come from the student's own interests; whereas in a group directed inquiry activity, the topic of inquiry can be reached from a discussion of everyone's areas of interest. After the process of proposing and talking, the group members can make a priority list of topics and select from them the one(s) that they will make further inquiry into.

Once the topic of inquiry is identified, the students should be directed to raise questions about it, an exercise which helps to define the task and focus attention. As the questions are not imposed from without but stem from the students themselves, they enable the students to think freely and also entail a responsibility of action to search for the answers. The type and quality of the questions raised also reflect the experience, capacities, and keenness of the students, and they help the teacher to understand the students' intellectual development. Indeed, the training of question asking is very important as questioning helps to clarify and shape the thoughts of the students, it also exerts a motivating force on them to seek information, thus establishing a purpose of learning. In short, questions supply the foundation for further action (see Torrance & Myers, 1970 for ways of guiding children to ask questions).

With the questions sorted out, the students will begin their search for answers by visiting the school library. Visits to the community library should be encouraged or arranged if possible. The teacher and the school librarian should co-operate to guide students about library usage by introducing the ways to look for books; pointing out the reference and tool books and other helpful resources like newspapers, magazines, tapes etc. available; and

showing them how to scan the content page and the index of a book for quick information and other ways of selecting and rejecting materials.

Other means of obtaining information can also be introduced as needs arise. These include visits to museums, law courts, travel agencies, government information centre and the like. Apart from the knowledge gained by actual experience or talking to people, sometimes, written materials like pamphlets can be collected. Interviewing people knowledgeable in different specialities, such as policemen, doctors, journalists, grandparents, and so on can also provide invaluable information and in many cases, inspiring experiences.

With the materials collected or located, the next step is to sort out and extract the useful materials. Sessions will be allocated for a lot of reading, organizing and writing will take place, and in group-directed inquiry, time will also be spent on talking, listening and negotiating ideas. The teacher plays a significant role at this stage to see if the materials collected are within the grasp of the students. She may go from group to group or child to child to observe their progress, offer help, guidance and reassurrance so as to stimulate and facilitate inquiry. Indeed the skills needed at this stage, such as reading for details or just to obtain an overview, making notes about the relevant information and organizing different pieces of information, are skills that take time and opportunities to practise. These inquiry reading sessions are very good opportunities for the teacher to instruct students in such skills with the actual task at hand. Moreover, to engage students in alternating individual and group-directed inquiry activities will ensure that these skills will be frequently practised.

While students are searching for answers to their inquiry, they are to decide also the way to present their findings and the

division of labour among themselves. Methods of presentation can vary from displays of work (e.g. scrap books, drawings, exhibition of statistical information) to actual "performances" before an audience (e.g. role plays, demonstrations, talks), or a combination of both. Indeed, the way of presentation will influence the type of information gathered and the intensity with which it is studied, and also vice versa. Therefore, the decision of the way of presentation should be made while information is sought and assembled.

The various activities like selecting, arranging, rearranging, rehearsing etc. for the presentation stage are a real integration of co-operative effort, creativity, and language skills. Thus the presentation stage is not simply the final stage demonstrating the fruit of the inquiry, but it helps to develop an understanding for the need to select, organize and share ideas in an interesting way and the skills of doing so. It is thus desirable to devote a few sessions to the presentation of individual or group inquiry work so that the students can share and learn from each other's work and experience.

Response from the audience is essential to the learning experience of students as it gives feedback to them about their work and will also help them to develop a mature attitude towards compliments as well as criticisms. The teacher should encourage open response on each other's presentation in a fair and just way which is based on mutual respect and reciprocity. Constructive feedback will lead to improvement in future inquiry learning, produce honesty and acceptance between peers and enhance the growth of a truthful self-image. Moreover, apart from presentation within the class, interclass presentation or invitation of visitors to attend the presentation sessions can be arranged to add to the momentum of the inquisitive activities. Further, written materials produced in inquiry can be used for language teaching materials as well.

To conclude, in the inquiry learning method, essentially three factors are involved in the wholesome development of the students, namely motivation, commitment, and sharing (Stauffer, 1980, p.250). Motivation stems from the students' interest and curiosity in seeking for knowledge beyond their experiences. The desire to seek, to know and to understand sets the objective of an intellectual commitment in which the students try to relate their experiences and knowledge to the event at hand, and to use it to predict, anticipate, plan, explore, validate and evaluate. The whole process of learning is thus very much the students' own commitment. The fulfilment of the learning process comes not only from finding the answers or information to one's own questions, but from sharing one's findings with others. (See further discussions and suggestions of inquiry activities in Torrance & Myers, 1970; Hennings & Grant, 1973; Russell, 1980)

This method may be criticised as taking up more time for the students to learn about certain information which can be readily explained by the teacher or provided by reading books prescribed by the teacher. Nevertheless, the experience of leading a self-structured inquiry into knowledge allows the students to see for themselves the nature and breadth of knowledge, which the basic textbooks cannot replace. It makes learning self-directed and suitable to the students' own level rather than a prescribed curriculum imposed on everyone. Moreover, in the process, there are many opportunities for the students to acquire other skills like locating, selecting and using materials, reading intensively and extensively, analysing and organising information, making notes and summaries, sharing ideas, attentive listening and asking questions. Besides the bright side of inquiry, the self-structured process may also permit students to experience mistakes and failure. This is something that the students have to learn about the responsibility of the decisions and choices they make. With the supportive atmosphere in the 2L-LEA classroom and the help which is available, the failure and frustration can be turned into healthy experiences

in the emotional development of the students.

V.2.3 Supportive Activities

These are activites which assume a supportive and complementary role to the methods discussed above.

V.2.3.1 Keeping a Word Bank

The teacher should encourage the students to each keep a word bank (Hall, 1981; Stauffer, 1980) of their own, in which they put in newly learnt words in the 2L-LEA activities that are of significance to them. In Stauffer's words, the word bank, "with its dynamic, utilitarian pragmatism, results in the accumulation of a sound and functional vocabulary, invested with meaning and logical associations that facilitate retention and recall" (Stauffer, 1980, p.113).

A word bank may be a small box commercially made for filing index cards or any box that can serve a similar purpose. Each new key word is to be put on a separate small card. Whether these word cards are arranged in alphabetical order or in family groups is a matter for the students to work out for themselves to see what sort of storage system serves them best.

The word bank is a personal record of words that a student has learned. As these word cards accumulate, there is the possibility that certain words will become "hazy" after some time. The teacher should advise the students to go through the word bank every now and then and check if they still know all the words. This can be done by asking students to check each other's knowledge of the words in the word bank in pairs. Word cards of the unknown or "hazy" words are taken out and put into an envelop of forgotten words which is also kept in the box. Any words he can recognize

from the envelop later can then be redeposited into the bank.

Filing words in a word bank contributes to orderliness, to dictionary or thesaurus use and to other language activities. There are numerous ways of extending language experience activities with the word bank wealth. The best way to help the students remember these words is to have them use the words to construct sentences, ask questions or develop a story.

V.2.3.2 Keeping Writing Folders

Each student should keep a personal writing folder of his own, in which he keeps his own written work, and another folder for the duplicated copies of each group experience story or transcripts of group discussions etc.. Indeed, the folders are like the reading books of the student. He can reread the writing, illustrate the stories or use them for further language practice activities. The personal writing folder of each student is also a record of his progress in the programme, thus it can serve as a source of assessment of the student's performance (see further discussion on assessment in Section V.2.4.2).

V.2.3.3 Follow-up Language Structure Activities

In 2L-LEA, language structure is not the core of the curriculum. The focus of the methods discussed in V.2.2 above is on language as a means to communicate meaning and express experience rather than on the language form, therefore most activities involve the students in using the language integratively. Nevertheless, as discussed in the previous chapter, fluency in communicating meaning has to be supported by accuracy in using the language (Brumfit, 1984). This is especially true for second language learners learning English in a foreign language context, where the learners' use of English will not be shaped by the language environment. Moreover, Clark (1987) also points out that in the realm of

classroom methodology, different methodological emphases (conscious rule-learning, deliberate form-focused practice, and unsystematized experiential learning) will lead to different results ranging from an ability to create sentences on the basis of rules but not an ability to communicate in real time, to an ability to communicate with certain fluency but not accuracy. Language teachers should, therefore, "draw on appropriate strategies for particular tasks in particular contexts, and achieve the sort of balance betwen the different strategies that is required for particular learners" (Clark, 1987, p.102).

In the context of Hong Kong, a balance of fluency and accuracy in English is essential if the students are to cope with the bilingual curriculum in school. In other words, focus on language form is an element which should not be discarded for 2L-LEA to be employed in Hong Kong, on the basis that these language forms are not disembedded from context or taught only for the sake of accuracy, but are means to help to get meaning across.

These language structure sessions should best be follow-up sessions after the language experience exercises where the students' work can be used as the basis for further language structure practice. By teaching language structures through examples from the personal and group experience stories, creative writings and the word banks, the students will relate language form to language meaning more easily, and find the structural practice meaningful and relevant as contrasted to the teaching of certain language structures disembedded from context.

As far as the classroom organisation of language structure teaching is concerned, the teacher can choose to work with the whole class or provide direct teaching to groups of students at a similar language level or with similar needs. The procedures employed by the teacher for specific language practice may not be distinctive to 2L-LEA. However, what makes them characteristic is

the selection of words, expressions and sentence patterns from the students' writing. For instance, the teacher can use the students' own words in their word banks for phonic exercises, structural or morphemic analysis; or make use of sentences extracted from the students' writing for further directed writing exercises. Comprehension skills can also be practised by using transcription of a class discussion as the focus for an exercise on connectives, contextual clues, and sequencing of ideas. (See Kennedy & Roeder, 1973, pp.22-29 for ideas of using student-created materials for language skill development.)

V.2.3.4 Publication Activities

Since 2L-LEA involves students in creating their own learning materials, writing constitutes a major part of the learning experience. As discussed before, writing is an act of sharing, the purpose of which is to be read by someone, even if it is by the writer himself. Publishing students' writing contributes to a sense of audience thus giving purpose to the task of writing. It also promotes great pride in authorship for it conveys the idea that students' writing is important and valued. This in turn serves as a motivating power for writing as well as refining and proofreading the original draft. This means apart from the message conveyed, publishing also presents a reason for working on language accuracy such as spelling, punctuation, grammar and other writing conventions. Moreover, publishing keeps a "hard" record of past accomplishments which can be shared not only among students in school but also with students' family members.

Publishing can take various forms, ranging from displaying students' writing on a bulletin board to printing and binding books, which can be kept in the classroom/school library or as personal possessions. (See Froese, 1977a; Hall, 1981; Graves, 1983 for bookbinding suggestions.) Collection of children's writing can also be published as class magazine or newsletter at a regular

interval, thus providing a natural situation for publication. A publishing committee can also be set up for each publication so that students can take turns in editing and organising the publishing work.

Indeed, in the school context of Hong Kong, many publication activities are always going on. Nevertheless, most of them involve publication of notices, school rules and circular from the school authority or pieces of "good" work chosen from bright students. The average or below average students rarely get the chance to enjoy the pride of authorship, so they are never encouraged to write for others to read. Assigning equal value to every student's work and the publication of them will surely help to build up the self-confidence of those students whose effort is often neglected. With relatively cheap and convenient printing and photocopying services available in Hong Kong, publication of students' work should be greatly promoted.

V.2.3.5 Library Usage

A library is an integral part of the 2L-LÉA. As indicated in Section V.2.2.5 above, the library is a major source of information and plays a significant role in developing the students' reading interests and experiences beyond their own language experience. This is especially true to second language students as the library can offer them reading materials of the target language and thus expose them to more input of the language. The materials and resources there are also extremely helpful in stimulating their inquiry learning and extending their scope of knowledge. The library is thus a creative as well as a resource centre for teaching and learning in general, and a source of language input to 2L-LEA in particular. This implies that skill in reading and library usage should be an integral part of teaching and learning; and this is exactly what 2L-LEA is doing.

Apart from encouraging students to utilize the school library or the libraries in the community, a classroom library can be set up, where the teacher can display books that may be of interest to students and students can bring their own books from home and place them there for others to borrow home or read during free time. Moreover, student-created (personal or group) experience stories can also be displayed for others to read.

The ideal classroom library as suggested by Russell (1980) is to be so arranged that will appear inviting and impressive to the students. The suggestion of using a classroom corner for the library, furnished with shelves, a book exhibit table, desks, chairs, rocking chairs, seaters, stools, rug etc. is too ambitious for most classrooms in Hong Kong. Nevertheless, it will not be too difficult to find a place to shelve some books in the classroom and have it decorated to signify its importance in the room. Moreover, in spite of the significance of the environmental factor, the major determiner of the students' attitude towards the classroom library is the teacher's interest in books and the ways she integrates the classroom library into the language experience activities of the class.

V.2.4 Methods of Correction and Assessment

In a conventional English classroom in Hong Kong, correction plays a rather important role in the learning process. The underlying assumption is that students should learn from their mistakes the accurate form of the language. This is especially true with students' written work which is always submitted to be marked by the teacher. The teacher will and is expected to mark every mistake in red; and the mistakes are either corrected by the teacher (if they are beyond the students' level to do so) or returned to the students for correction.

As far as assessment is concerned, it is an integral part of learning since it is a source of feedback to the students, the teachers, and also some other people concerned (the school authority, parents etc.). Moreover, assessment is essential in the school context to provide a systematic record of the students' performance and to establish their relative abilities and achievements against the norm of the whole form at the end of term. Although the latter function of formal assessment often creates pressure and competition in the students, it is an inevitable element under the education system of Hong Kong.

The procedure of assessment in most schools in Hong Kong is to administer a number of standardized tests within each term and an examination at the end of term. Test papers and examination papers are usually set according to the language structures taught within a certain period or on the content (vocabulary, text, language exercise etc.) of prescribed textbooks. Grades or marks will be used to assess performance of the students. The grades/marks of the students' tests and examinations in the whole school year will be tabulated and used as the criteria of their eligibility to be promoted to the higher form.

2L-LEA, with its focus on language meaning, the value it

attaches to the work produced by students and its very unstructured and flexible curriculum, imply that the conventional way of correcting students' work and assessment is not applicable. This section attempts to suggest ways of correction and assessment in the 2L-LEA way.

V.2.4.1 Correction

The major characteristic of LEA is the students creating their own reading materials. Advocates of LEA stress the importance of the teacher transcribing the students' experience stories as dictated and not to correct any mistakes of the students' creative writing. The rationale (Rigg, 1977; Hall, 1981) lies in the basic premises of the approach in that it is the learners' language, not someone else's, which serves as the base to build up their own reading materials that are meaningful and significant to them; that the learners' work should be valued and appreciated as it is; that correction will raise the anxiety level in learning; and that the focus of the learning should be on meaning and content but not on the language form. It is held that as learners get more and more proficient in using the language as a result of the constant input they receive from the language environment around them, they will be able to correct themselves in future.

While understanding the rationale of keeping the student-created materials as they are, we have to take into consideration the fact that when 2L-LEA is applied in the context of Hong Kong, there is no natural input from the language environment to shape the students' language form. In such a context, the function and effect of correction by the teacher is to be seen from a different perspective.

Errors are inevitable in the language development process of every individual no matter whether it is their first language or second language (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). Indeed, correction as a

means of putting things right is not a bad thing. What makes it a problem is the negative attitude and value attached to mistakes and the way that correction is done. The following discussion is to introduce the different constructive functions performed by correction in 2L-LEA activites, and the questions of how and when to employ them will vary with the purpose of the task, the nature of the activity, and the level and needs of the students.

Firstly, based on the principle of classroom scaffolding, correction in a 2L-LEA activity can be used as a means of negotiating meaning. In activities where students have to share ideas and experience stories orally, the correction of the students' utterances can be done through rephrasing, asking questions of clarification or prompting in a warm, uncritical and unassuming way. This is exactly the way adults talk with young children, showing interest in what they say, appreciating the effort they make and helping them to express meaning. In this way, the focus of correction is on the communication of meaning. It is only done when the teacher feels that certain meaning is unclearly expressed by the student who talks, so that she responds as an interested listener who tries to negotiate the meaning together with the speaker; and that such negotiation is not "one way", it needs the consent of the student to the correction suggested or hinted by the teacher.

Negotiation of meaning can also be done with the student's written work. The teacher reads the writing as a whole piece of work without writing down any correction on it, but marks down places where she notices that the message of the writer is blocked by unclear or ungrammatical expressions. She can then try to negotiate the meaning by asking the student to talk about the content and try to work out a better way of expressing certain points together, so that the student will focus attention on the message conveyed, and at the same time realise the importance of improving the language form to get the message across.

Secondly, based on the principle that second language learners in a foreign language context do need and expect correction of the language form to help them not only communicate meaning, but to do it in a grammatically acceptable manner, correction in 2L-LEA thus also performs the function of shaping language form. Students do learn from mistakes, but if the teacher corrects all the errors, this may be too overwhelming for the students to handle at one time; and overcorrection may also have the adverse effect of intimidating the students. Thus correction based on selective focus is essential.

Correction to shape language form is best done on written work as the students will have more time to read over the corrections and relate them to their language experience. The teacher should set her criteria of selective focus according to the level and needs of students, and also the nature and purpose of the task. For instance, the teacher can choose to correct the most prominent grammatical error which blocks the writer's intention, or correct only one or a couple of error(s) which recur(s) in the writing and ignore the others for the time being. She can also choose to correct the errors by providing the correct forms herself, or by using symbols which indicate the types of mistakes made and expect the students to correct them for themselves. Discussing specific errors with individuals or going over a common error with a group or the whole class are also variations that can be used for different purposes.

As for the written transcriptions of experience stories or class discussions, the grammatical errors should not be altered. This is because during the experience story dictating stage, the teacher should have helped to correct certain prominent errors standing in the way of meaning by way of negotiation with the students. Consequently, the teacher's job is to transcribe what the students say with their consented alterations, but not what they want the students to say, or else this will defeat the purpose of

having student-created learning materials. Nevertheless, this does not prevent the teacher from using the transcript for further language activities which can then help to focus students' attention on certain language errors that exist in the transcript.

Thirdly, as publication of students' writing and presentation of their inquiry activities are significant elements in 2L-LEA, correction therefore performs the function of revision for the sake of the reader or the audience. Being aware of the existence of a real audience or readers, the students will have a clearer purpose of the writing or the inquiry task, and this will create in them a natural urge to revise and improve their work.

Correction in this sense is very much a self-initiated act which can be assisted by other students or the teacher as required. It always starts with proof-reading, during which the students reflect on their works and prepare their own corrections wherever possible. By doing so, the students will have the opportunity to spot their own mistakes and ask for help if necessary. Another similar approach can be used especially for the publication of group experience stories or the presentation of group inquiry findings. This is to pair or group students as editing partners or groups and let them edit and revise the work of each other in a co-operative effort. Moreover, with the revolution brought by information technology, microcomputers are gradually being introduced into schools of Hong Kong. This implies that the students can do their own editing and corrections more easily through the computer word processing programmes.

Graves (1983) also suggests a teacher/student conference as a personalized way for the teacher to contribute to the composing or revising process. In the conference, the teacher can supply positive reinforcement and guide the students with the revising work that is within their grasp. Beyond this, the teacher can correct the errors in the final draft, but she should try to retain

the students' language as far as possible. There is always a margin of editing that individuals can take, therefore the teacher should avoid the possibility of intimidating the authorship of the students. Nevertheless, it is also very important for the students to be made aware in the process that thorough revision and editing are a normal way to polish the work for publications and presentations; and that even professional writers need the help of editors.

As shown from the above discussion, correction in 2L-LEA can be used to achieve different purposes: to negotiate meaning, to shape language form, and to revise the work for publication/ presentation. The freeing of the teacher from the strenous correction of every mistake in the students' work can allow her more time and energy to engage students in more written work. With the atmosphere of respect and support, and the mutual understanding of the different ways of correction used for different tasks on the part of both the teacher and the students, correction can be a constructive experience to the language development of the students.

V.2.4.2 Assessment

As 2L-LEA is a very flexible programme with no structured syllabus, and the approach is founded on activity and respect for the work done, assessment of students' progress should be a continuous process and a part of all curriculum experiences. Informal assessment can be made on the everyday tasks performed by the students and the skills exhibited. More formal assessment will come in the form of record keeping and standardized tests and examination at certain times of the school term, as is expected from the school authority and the parents.

V.2.4.2.1 Informal Assessment

Informal assessment can be given by the teacher to the students on their work in the form of verbal or written comments. Comments can usually provide information more specific than grades or marks. Besides, grades and marks imply that set standards must be met each time the students are asked to perform a task; their freedom to express, to create, and to experiment, which are the essence of 2L-LEA, will thus be blocked (Myers & Torrance, 1965).

As assessment is very crucial to the self image of a person, it is advisable to provide informal assessment in a positive approach, recognizing the value of the students' effort. This means that instead of concentrating on the mistakes and negative aspects of the students' language ability, the teacher tries to listen for the voice of the students, look for the things which they have attempted and achieved and points which are most appropriate and effective. In short, assessing the good points of a piece of work will provide impetus for further attempts.

At the same time, peer evaluation can also be encouraged as a means of informal assessment. Again, this must be done on the basis of good will and support. Students can be invited to provide constructive written or verbal comments on their classmates' experience stories or other work. Encouraging students to assess their own work proved to work well for Walton (1986), a teacher who tried peer assessment in her writing project. The method she used was to ask students to choose a partner with whom they felt comfortable to work with. They assessed each other's work (in this case, writing) with the help of some guiding questions provided by the teacher. The guiding questions were written on a card which was provided to every partner. They are:

"(1) Do you think the writing is interesting / enjoyable?
(2) Is there anything missing in this piece?
(3) Is there anything which is not clear or accurate?
(4) Can you suggest any helpful words or expressions?
(5) Can you suggest a more suitable beginning or ending to the piece?
(6) Do you think it is too long or too short?
(7) Can anything be missed out?
(8) Has the writer written what (s)he was asked to do? Write down suggested improvements on a separate piece of paper."

(Walton, 1986, p.12)

Nevertheless, it is pointed out that these questions are helpful to more detached types of writing such as reports of inquiry but not for more personal writing or poetry. In other words, the teacher has to decide the informal assessment procedures according to the nature of the task.

The above discussion shows that informal assessment is best for showing appreciation of the effort and achievement of the students, and also encouragement for further improvement.. The assessment is on an individual basis, which means the students are assessed against themselves.

V.2.4.2.2 Formal Assessment

"The more loosely structured the learning programme, the more prone it is to attacks on the basis of accountability" (Braun, 1977b, p.223). This will be particularly so if 2L-LEA is to be introduced to the target group of the study, because its flexibly structured programme is considerably innovative to the secondary school ethos of Hong Kong. A systematic and formal way of assessment is, therefore, essential for the approach to establish its accountability to the school, the teachers, the learners and parents. Moreover, with information and assessment recorded on a regular basis, there is constant feedback and evaluation as to the

effectiveness of the programme so that techniques and practices can be maintained or altered to meet the needs of the learners and to achieve better results.

The formats of assessment or record-keeping may vary, but as suggested by Braun, they should meet the following criteria:

> "1. Reflect the objectives of instruction
> 2. Be efficient and practical (i.e., adaptable to the individual teacher's needs)
> 3. Be designed for effective transmission of information
> a. For the learner's feedback
> b. For the immediate and intermediate modification of instructional procedures
> c. For short-range feedback to parents
> d. For long-term records in the school files"
>
> (Braun, 1977b, pp.223-224)

In the case of Hong Kong, since the promotion of students to the next form is basically dependent on the students' academic performance, another criterion has to be added to the list, and that is: "be objective enough for the decision of the promotion of learners to the next form to be made."

In 2L-LEA, the personal folder and word bank of each student can be a systematic record of the course work of the students. Transcribed individual experience stories, creative writing and individual inquiry reports are good indicators of specific achievement and progress. Both quantitative and qualitative assessment can be made from the amount dictated/written, the length and complexity of sentences, sequence of ideas, range of interests, varieties of vocabulary and the nature and quality of the illurstrations. The weekly total of words in the word bank is an indicator of the words learned. In addition, library usage and record of books read are also a source of reference of the students' interest and attitude towards reading.

As far as the students' oral language is concerned, activities

like group/individual experience story telling, discussion, and presentation of inquiry learning may provide opportunities for the teacher to observe and note down individual progress in speaking and listening.

Tests and examinations assessed with grades and marks at certain time of the school year are still needed to fit in the existing school system in Hong Kong. Nevertheless, a descriptive assessment made constantly on the students' daily work will provide more information than the assessment simply based on grades or marks. Checklists or comment sheets to record each student's performance and reactions in different types of activities and tasks can be devised so that there is a systematic assessment of the students' strength and weakness in learning the language. (See examples of different formats of record-keeping for different tasks in Hall, 1981; Braun & Froese, 1977, Chapters, 2, 4, 5, and Part VI, Appendices B and C). These not only help to keep a record of the progress of each student against himself, but help the teacher to know the areas which the student needs further help and practice. On the other hand, they also serve as a guide for the teacher to evaluate her teaching and the programme used.

Although this kind of assessment procedure may be criticised as too dependent on teacher observation and judgement, Froese (1977b) cites research to show that teacher judgement does correspond with general test results. Moreover, with both the quantitative and qualitative record of the students' performance in different aspects of language learning, the assessment procedures do give a more holistic and personal picture of each student.

However, as mentioned above, assessment cannot be made entirely on the individual basis or purely in a descriptive format in the context of Hong Kong. Each student's relative competence in using the language as compared to the other students of the same form is to be assessed. Therefore, tests and examinations cannot be

avoided. As far as the format of tests and examinations is concerned, the teacher should set tasks which do not test grammar knowledge but language use, and the choice of topics should be close to the students' interest and experience in general. Nevertheless, results gathered should not be regarded as the only points of reference for school decisions (e.g. promotion to the higher form, prize giving) to be made. They should be considered together with the records of continuous qualitative assessment of individuals.

All in all, the 2L-LEA teacher should try to persuade the school authority of the equal significance and value of the continuous assessment on an individual basis. If not, the students will experience a double standard in the 2L-LEA programme, i.e. the teacher promoting a supportive and co-operative atmosphere in the class and respecting the learning process of every individual on the one hand, and the school advocating a competitive atmosphere, pushing every one towards the same hurdle on the other hand. This leads back to the question of readiness of the school mentioned in Section V.2.1.1 above.

V.2.5 Classroom Organization

Classroom learning situations of 2L-LEA will be organized on whole class, small group, and individual level according to the purpose and type of activities engaged.

Open discussions, various experience activities, sharing class experience stories, presenting inquiry findings and creative writing can occur with a total class group. Language activities using class produced materials can also be conducted with the whole class.

Small group or pair activities are desirable for the sharing

of personal experiences, writing and reading, problem solving activities, and editing one another's writing. The teacher can group students of similar language level or needs for the instruction of a certain concept, strategy or language structure. Small groups can also be formed on an interest basis so that they can share their written or reading materials on a particular topic, or work on the same inquiry or project topic co-operatively. These groups can be temporary and dissolved when no longer needed. New groupings can be formed for other purposes. As pointed out in the study of Calvert (1973), students particularly enjoy interaction with other students in small groups at secondary level, because they feel more secure and take pride in doing things together, contributing their effort and learning from their peers.

Teacher activities with individuals, or known as `individual conferences' are essential for the teacher to help individual students to compose orally (through negotiation of meaning and provision of `scaffolding'), record individual experience stories, focus attention on specific skills or structures, evaluate progress, suggest ideas and material for future individual work and observe, listen, and provide support to the individuals.

In the secondary schools of Hong Kong, the average class size is 40-45 students. The most typical classroom organization is in the form of teacher instructing the whole class. The high teacher-student ratio does challenge the feasibility of frequent implementations of individual conferences. To solve this problem, the teacher may have to use extra-classroom time for individual instruction, but this will definitely add to the existing heavy work load. Another possible solution is to mobilize some upper form students to help during their free lessons. Nevertheless, such kind of help will depend on the availability of helpful students and may be rather short-term and unreliable. Indeed, the suggestion of split class teaching put forward by the report of Education Commission (1986) mentioned in Chapter One appears to be the best

solution to the problem. But before the realization of these split classes in junior secondary language classes, it seems more practicable to put greater emphasis on small group activities or small group conferences. On the whole, the 2L-LEA encourages flexibility in organization and scheduling, so classroom organisation should not be confined to a fixed format (Smith & Johnson, 1980; Hall, 1981). Frequency of each type of learning situations should depend on the practical situation of the learning context.

V.2.6 Different Roles of the Teacher

Apart from the principles behind 2L-LEA and the methods of instruction used in the classroom, the teacher plays a very significant role in the success of the programme. Indeed, one of the most important factors in learning in any given classroom is the teacher.

Teachers' attitude and expectations of students' performance, though not voiced explicitly, can be easily felt and they exert much influence on the learning of the students. The 2L-LEA teacher should respect individual differences of the students, believe that the students can contribute to their own learning and accept each student's language as it is. She should also be creative and flexible enough for the 2L-LEA programme is by nature very loosely structured, and the way it develops is very much dependent on the language experience of the students as well as of the teacher.

The teacher will have to assume different roles in the programme. Broadly speaking, she has to assume the role of a facilitator, a modeller, a counsellor, a partner and an instructor at different times for different tasks. Firstly, she is the facilitator for learning to take place. This means she recognises the students as active learning agents and the importance of their

active participation for real learning to take place. Thus her role is to maximize the learning opportunities and to support and facilitate the learning process by acts such as making arrangement of stimuli for learning, organising the class, providing support and various assistance and classroom scaffolding to students in their process of communicating with the language, and recording or transcribing students' experience stories and discussions as their learning materials.

Secondly, an effective influence on people is not so much what one preaches but what one practises. As many 2L-LEA activities involve the students in sharing their experiences, in respecting and supporting one another, in being creative and inquisitive, the teacher's role as a modeller will have a far-reaching effect on the learning experience of the students. This means what the teacher says and does will always have a modelling impact on the students. For instance, her willingness to open up herself and share her experiences, her attitude towards the students, her creativity in using the language, her approach to inquiry, her love of books ....etc. can usually inspire students of their own learning experience.

Thirdly, there are also times when the teacher has to assume the role of a counsellor. This is because to respect the students as individuals whose contributions are of value to their learning, the teacher has to learn to be be observant in what the students do, to be sensitive to listen to or to read what they say or write without presumptions or criticisms, to accept them as they are but not what they wish them to be, and to give appropriate feedback so as to help the students understand and evaluate themselves. A counsellor's job is to help the clients to help themselves; in this case, a 2L-LEA teacher is also to help students to help themselves in learning the language.

Fourthly, at times the teacher may need to act as a partner or

co-worker in the learning process of the students. This includes instances when the teacher and the students share their experience stories together, or when the class is going to publish something, the teacher may work together with the students or the editing group as a proofreader or an editor.

Lastly, in contrast to the role of a partner, there are also times in 2L-LEA activities when the teacher has to give instructions, guidance, and direct teaching. In these cases, the teacher will assume the role of an instructor who is more experienced in certain fields and is able to give advice and help to the students. For instance, when the teacher helps students to focus on certain language structures and explains the usage of certain expressions, she is an instructor.

The above discussion shows that there is a significant difference in some of the roles of a 2L-LEA teacher, (e.g. a facilitator vs. an instructor, or a modellor vs. a partner). This does not imply a contradiction, but the educational significance of these different roles of the teacher to the students' learning. Learning does not occur in only one mode, so the teacher's assuming different roles in different activities will achieve different purposes and maximize the students' capacity of learning.

In the context of Hong Kong, an unassuming role of the teacher as a facilitator or a partner in the secondary school level may not be readily accepted by the students. As mentioned in Section V.2.1.1 of this chapter, teachers in Chinese culture are respected and expected to assume an authoritative role, a sharp change of the role to that of a partner or a facilitator may disillusion the learners and lead to confusion. Therefore, the orientation stage (Section V.2.1) is of particular importance for the teacher to establish a warm and trustful relationship with the students and for them to understand the rationale of the approach.

Moreover, the discussion of the different roles of a 2L-LEA teacher seems to suggest that the teacher should be versatile and competent in all aspects. This is by no means the case. In fact, many teachers are just ordinary people who have their own strengths and weaknesses. It is unrealistic to require the teacher to be perfect in performing different roles. Some teachers may be more comfortable in assuming the role of a counsellor while others may do better as a facilitator. What is most important is their belief in the principles of 2L-LEA, an awareness of the effect of the role(s) they are playing, and a flexibility to cope with the flexible structure of the programme. Indeed, the 2L-LEA teacher should always open herself to learn from the experience and to progress in her teaching.

It is apparent that the 2L-LEA teacher will have much work to do as compared to the conventional way of teaching, because more time and attention are to be paid to individual students, to helping students to create their learning materials, to editing and publishing students' work, etc. It would be most helpful if there are assistants to help the teacher in certain 2L-LEA activities; and in fact, this is not impossible if the school can mobilize some upper form students to use their free lessons to help in the 2L-LEA classrooms. At the same time, the teacher has to know her own strengths and limitations as well as those existing in her teaching environment, and work out what is the best 2L-LEA programme in the specific circumstances.

V.3 Summary

This chapter has firstly shown that the principles and pedagogical implications of 2L-LEA are basically relevant to the felt need of change in the six identified areas of the first form English classroom in the secondary schools of Hong Kong.

Then a practical proposal for a 2L-LEA programme to the target group was made by taking into consideration the various practices of the conventional LEA suggested in the existing literature, the unique principles of 2L-LEA and the practical situation in the secondary schools of Hong Kong.

The core of the programme is to help students create their own learning materials through key vocabulary method, directed writing method, experience story method, creative writing method and inquiry method. Activities designed under these methods are rooted in the students' language experience and interests. The former three methods can provide the students with more support and help through negotiation of meaning and classroom scaffolding between the teacher and students, whereas the latter two can allow more independent work and extend the students' scope of experience to more creative expression as well as to less contextually-supported reading materials.

Supportive activities in the form of word bank, writing folders, follow-up language structure activities, publication activities and library usage are significant as they serve to complement and supplement the methods helping students to create their learning materials. To achieve a balance of fluency and accuracy in English, language structure activities are still essential to the programme. The categorizing of them under `Supportive Activities' is not to relegate their importance, but to show that language structure activities disembedded from the students' language experience are meaningless. They should thus be

based on the student-produced materials so that students can relate language form to language meaning more readily.

As far as methods of correction and assessment are concerned, correction in the constructive sense is advocated so that the teacher can help to negotiate meaning, shape language form and help students to revise their work for various purposes. The teacher's knowledge of what and when to correct and an uncritical and supportive attitude are the basis for constructive correction. Assessment of students' performance is important so that the programme is accountable to the school, teachers, parents and students. It should be conducted on a continuous basis with a balance of both informal and formal, as well as qualitative and quantitative means of assessment.

Classroom organization of 2L-LEA will vary according to the type of activities used. It is basically in the form of whole class, small groups or individual conference. Nevertheless, the class size will be a crucial factor in determining the frequency of conducting individual conferences.

The 2L-LEA teacher will have to assume different roles in the process of helping students to learn, varying from the more traditional roles of an instructor, a modeller, to the more unassuming roles of a counsellor, a facilitator and a partner. It is unrealistic to expect the teacher to be versatile and competent in all aspects. The ability to be flexible and to open oneself to learn from the experience and a willingness to improve in teaching are essential qualities of the 2L-LEA teacher.

Since 2L-LEA will be an innovation to the existing school ethos of Hong Kong, to introduce the programme to the first year English classroom, it has to go through a preparation and orientation stage, so that it will gain understanding and support (even with reservations, as is inevitable with every kind of

innovation and change in the curriculum) from the school, the teachers and the students. Continuous evaluation is essential for further modifications and improvement in the programme to fit the needs of the students and the context of the school.

Chapter Six
An Action Research Study

Section A Research Design

VI.1 Methodological Issues

To put theory into practice and to explore the feasibility of incorporating 2L-LEA in the curriculum of a Hong Kong lower secondary classroom, the proposed 2L-LEA programme in Ch.5 was applied to a classroom context in Hong Kong. There is no point in advancing educational research and establishing various theories without relating them to the realistic setting of the classroom nor involving the teacher in the act of improving the teaching and learning situation.

As far as the research methodology in the classroom is concerned, there are many ways of doing it. Nixon (1981b, p.13) maintains that "the methods employed will depend to a large extent on the skills of the teacher, the nature of the research problem and the resource available". In addition, Bell (1987, p.4) points out that "the nature of the inquiry and the type of information required" are also aspects that need to be considered. In other words, for the teachers to be the researchers in the classroom, their strength (i.e. their skills and natural inclination to certain methods) should be tapped for the research. Besides, the context within which the teachers work may also impose certain constraints on them. The research should therefore be designed for its implementation within the pattern of constraints existing in the school. Moreover, definition of the research problem will determine the nature of the inquiry, the type of data to be collected, presented and interpreted. (See Nixon, 1981 and Hustler et al., 1986 for examples of different methodologies for classroom action research.)

The following is, therefore, a definition of the research purpose and an analysis of the context of the study. On the basis of these, the implications for the nature of the study, the methodology and the type of data to be collected will be discussed.

VI.1.1 Basis for the Choice of Research Methodology

VI.1.1.1 Research Purpose

As discussed in Chapter One, the problems of learning English experienced especially among lower secondary students in Hong Kong as they move from primary to secondary schools are, to a large extent, results of the language policy at governmental level, and of the English learning situation at the classroom level. As changing the language policy was beyond the scale of an individual research like this, the study was, therefore, an attempt to change the classroom English learning situation with the introduction of 2L-LEA.

Since 2L-LEA was an approach derived from a theoretical exploration of existing second language theories and the language experience approach, whether it could prove to work with the target group of the study had to be tested by actual application in the classroom. Nevertheless, as an initial study of 2L-LEA in a foreseeably limited scale with the teacher as researcher, the research did not aim at generalization of findings, rather it aimed at gaining an in-depth understanding of the process and insight into the meaning for those involved. Modification and adaptation of the approach were also on-going processes during the study so that the needs and interests of the students were not to be ignored for the sake of the research. It was hoped, nevertheless, that implications from the experience of 2L-LEA in a classroom could be drawn for the practical feasibility of using 2L-LEA activities for students learning English as a second language.

In fine, the empirical study was to serve two purposes. On the micro level, it was to make English lessons more interesting and effective for the specific English class chosen for the study by the use of 2L-LEA activities. On the macro level, it could serve as an initial study to explore the practical feasibility of 2L-LEA activities for learning English as a second language among lower secondary students in Hong Kong. Hopefully, the findings could shed some light on the direction for further research with more general implications.

VI.1.1.2 Context of the Study

VI.1.1.2.1 Background Information on the School

The school in which I taught and where the study was conducted was True Light Middle School of Hong Kong. It was a Christian girls' school founded by missionaries in China more than 100 years ago and was establised in Hong Kong in 1935. It was originally a Chinese school with English taught only in English lessons. The long history, the religious background together with the strict discipline made it a prestigious private school. However, the situation was changed in the 1970's for two reasons.

Firstly, as more and more parents preferred to send their children to Anglo-Chinese schools because of the growing importance of English in Hong Kong, the school had become less attractive to "good" students than it was before. This was why in addition to the existing classes, an English Section of the school was set up in 1976 where English was used as the medium of teaching in most subjects. Since then, the school has had an English Section and a Chinese Section.

Secondly, the school used to be a private school having the autonomy to select its own students. It changed its status to a

government subsidized school in 1978. With the government's introduction of nine-year free education, the school began to receive most of its students allocated by the Secondary Schools Places Allocation Scheme (SSPAS).[35] As the school no longer controlled its intake of students, students of more varied academic abilities and family background were received.

Owing to the co-existence of the Chinese and the English Sections in the school, unlike some established Anglo-Chinese schools, Chinese was still predominantly used in school assemblies, meetings, school circulars, announcements, and most activities outside the classroom. The school life of students from the two sections was quite integrated and teachers also taught classes of both sections. Nevertheless, it was an open secret that students belonging to the Chinese Section were considered "dumb" and "slow". The reason was the better achieving primary six students were more likely to be allocated to Anglo-Chinese secondary schools (in the case of this school, the English Section) according to their preference of placement under the SSPAS.

Moreover, as the school was established with its long tradition, it retained many of its conventional practices, especially on discipline and order inside and outside the classroom, and accountability of both teachers and students to their duties and work. As far as innovative ideas were concerned, the teacher, did have a certain degree of freedom to implement new ways of teaching and the choice of supplementary materials at their own discretion within the class; but on the curriculum level, all changes and innovations had to go through formal discussion in the department panel meeting and/or the general meeting of teachers depending on the nature and scope of the innovation.

VI.1.1.2.2 Duration

The study spanned two academic years (i.e. 4 school terms

altogether), from the beginning of September 1988 to the end of June 1990. The first term of the 1988 academic year (i.e. September 1988 to January 1989) was a preparation stage, during which I, as the teacher-researcher, tried to get acquainted with the context of the action research, i.e. the students, the running of the school, and the resources available. In the second term, a pilot study was carried out to test the waters. The study proper was implemented in the 1989 academic year.

VI.1.1.2.3 The Subjects

As the focus of my study was on lower secondary students, I requested the school to let me teach a lower secondary class, preferably a group of F.1[36] English remedial class[37], so that the number of the subjects could be smaller and more manageable. Students of the English remedial class were split into two groups, namely Group A and Group B, during the English lesson, each being taught by a different English teacher. As far as the students in the English remedial class were concerned, they were not very different from other students except that their English performance was below average, so the class was set up to help them catch up with their English. In theory, the remedial classes could have a more flexible English curriculum and the teachers could have greater freedom in innovating teaching approaches and materials; but in practice, the English teachers of the remedial classes usually did not deviate too much from the scheme of work devised for the other classes of the same year. The major reason was that the General Test and the Term Examination papers were to be the same for all students (remedial or not) of the same year. This was, to a very large extent, a constraint for teachers of the remedial classes to experiment with teaching methods and materials which were specific to the remedial students' own needs for fear that they would not do well in the General Tests and examinations.

VI.1.1.2.4 The Teacher-Researcher

In this study, I performed the role of the researcher as well as the teacher. The first reason for this was that as a full-time teacher in the school, I had ready access to the target class as their English teacher. If one has to find out whether a new approach works with the learners, the most natural and unobtrusive way to do it is to have the teacher employing the approach without the intrusion of outsiders into the class. Secondly, as 2L-LEA was an innovation to second language teaching in Hong Kong, this study was an initial study of the feasibility of the approach for the target students. Therefore, before the training of other teachers to teach with 2L-LEA, it seemed more appropriate for the researcher, who designed the programme and understood the rationale of the approach to conduct a small scale pilot study like this by being the practitioner as well. In Ebbutt's (1985) classification, mine is a form of "insider-research" in school. It could also be considered as a kind of "participant-observation" with the researcher being a "complete" participant (Junker, 1960) in the school context.

In other words, the personal experience of being the teacher-researcher in using 2L-LEA would enable me to be involved in the process of classroom enquiry, adjusting and modifying the programme to cater for the actual needs of the students in the class, as a teacher should; and at the same time making observations, gathering and analysing data concerning the feasibility of the 2L-LEA programme for lower secondary students in Hong Kong learning English as their second language, as a researcher should. Although there may be the problem of the objectivity of the collection and interpretation of data if the researcher is the teacher, this can be minimized by certain monitoring procedures (see discussion in Section VI.2.2 below).

VI.1.2 Implications of the Research Purpose and the Context for the Research Method

The analysis of the research problem and the purpose of the study, as well as the practical aspects of the research context in the section above has virtually set the frame for the methodology to be used for my study. It points to the direction of a qualitative research which shares the features of a case study and action research. In the following, I will explain the reasons for it.

Firstly, as pointed out by Merriam (1988), qualitative approaches are very relevant for research which tackles a problem of practice from a holistic perspective, when understanding of the process and insight of the meaning for those involved are more important than specific variables, outcomes and confirmation of theories. The above section has shown that the context of the school made it rather unrealistic for an experimental approach to the study. Many variables like the various school practices, student components in a class, time-tabling, and the hidden curriculum could not be changed at will. Thus there existed many uncontrollable variables which would make the data yielded by strictly controlled experimental study limited in drawing a cause-effect relationship and might even lead to misleading interpretations. A qualitative approach which yields descriptive data may provide a more holistic picture of the actual situation and the process involved.

As an initial study on 2L-LEA, my study was small scale and aimed mainly at collecting meaningful feedback for the sake of understanding the feasibility of applying a 2L-LEA approach to a group of target students rather than to gather quantitative data from a representative sample for the sake of generalization. Meaningful feedback here referred to students' classroom response to the activities, students' opinion/attitude towards learning

English the 2L-LEA way, and the teacher's own experience in applying the approach. In other words, data like these are more descriptive and non-structured. It was hoped that such qualitative data could shed some light on the understanding of the process involved in the application of 2L-LEA to the English classroom of lower secondary students in Hong Kong. Although the experience was very much contextualized in one particular group of students in a school, it could at least point to directions for further research.

It was this examination of the application of a very specific approach among a group of students that made the study share the features of a case study. Amongst the different understandings of the term case study, it is generally accepted that a case study has a very specific phenomenon to examine. In Smith's (1978) term, it has a "bounded system"[38]; and in Adelman et al.'s words (1977), it focuses "an inquiry round an instance". Case studies also do not aim at generalization of findings from a sample with variables in the sample abstracted from context, but are an in-depth investigation of an individual, group or institution to determine the factors and relationships among the factors, which have resulted in the current behaviour or status of the subject of the study (Merriam, 1988). In other words, a qualitative approach is very relevant to case studies. Although generalization is not the primary aim of case studies, it does provide room for generalization to a certain extent. According to Stenhouse (1985c), a case or a collection of cases may resemble a sample so that any population in which similar meanings or relationship may apply is essentially a matter of judgement. With its publicly accessible data and interpretation, it allows others to draw generalization and judge the implications of the study for themselves, depending on the context and the various complexities involved. Silver (1983, p.302) also maintains that "a `case' may become the necessary starting point for other `cases', for a process of fresh historical debate and understanding....". This is indeed what my study was set out to achieve -- to serve as a starting point for further research

on 2L-LEA. In short, the advantages of case study, as Skilbeck (1983, p.18) puts it, rest on its perfection of the use of "observation and documentation", and its "revitalization and democratization of educational practice and knowledge", thus opening up the process of schooling for evaluation by all those concerned.

As for my personal inclination, I was interested in school-based insider research which offered me an opportunity to look at my own classrooms, find means to improve the existing situation, put theory into practice, and analyse findings which were meaningful to the context. In the school context, there was always the need for the accountability of the teacher to students and to the school policy. Therefore the study could not be carried out in a very controlled way without the teacher's intrusion in the process to make adjustments for the students whenever necessary. Quantitative data which required a degree of statistical sophistication and control of variables for validity and reliability were beyond the "manageable bound" of this small scale teacher-initiated research. Nevertheless, it did not mean the study did not use any quantitative data. Quantitative data in the form of attitude scale, marks/grades of students, though not obtained under a rigorously controlled experimental approach, were still a relevant source of information about students' attitudes and achievement. Apart from these, data obtained through qualitative methods such as observation, interviews, questionnaires, diaries and original works produced by students provided a rich and manageable source of data. Furthermore, the nature of 2L-LEA, a language-experience based approach, also seemed to fall in line with a more descriptive-based methodology of study.

As this study was to be carried out by the teacher as researcher in the classroom, it therefore also shared some features of action research. Indeed, as far as the term "action research" is concerned, there is a wide spectrum of definitions. In the

educational context, Elliott (1978, p.355) defines action research as "reflection related to diagnosis". He stresses that action research in schools "investigates human actions and social situations which are experienced by teachers rather than the `theoretical problems' defined by pure researchers within a discipline of knowledge." In other words, he thinks action research is concerned with a specific problem defined by the teacher in the classroom but it doesn't need to be undertaken by teachers.

Ebbutt (1985, p.156), on the contrary, defines action research as "the systematic study of attempts to change and improve educational practice by groups of participants by means of their own practical actions and by means of their own reflection upon the effects of those actions". His definition establishes the role of the teacher not only as the one who reflects on one's teaching and defines the problem, but the one involved in practical actions which aim to change and to improve practice.

Stenhouse also advocates strongly that the teacher should be the researcher in educational action research. The arguments put forward are that firstly, action research is "systematic self-critical enquiry" (Stenhouse, 1985a, p.8). To him, teachers should not be concerned simply with the justification of knowledge, they need to be tentative, sceptical and experimental for the improvement of their own practice and the school curriculum. Secondly, classrooms are the "ideal laboratories" for the testing of educational theory and teachers are in charge of the classrooms, not researchers (Stenhouse, 1985a, p.15).

From the above understanding of action research in the educational context, it is apparent that their common ground is that there are no distinct functions between the researcher and the practitioner. By stressing the reflective and diagnostic process, Elliott and Ebbutt maintain that judgement in action research is diagnostic rather than prescriptive for action. Similarly, by

stressing the enquiry process, Stenhouse views action research as a dynamic means for teachers' self development and for them to increase their professional expertise.

Another strand of action research is what is termed by Kelly (1985) as Simultaneous-Integrated Action Research. It is an attempt to broaden the scope of action research so that the findings are relevant not only to the action context, but also to the development of knowledge and theories in social science. The representative view of this strand is shown in Rapoport's (1970) definition that action-research "aims to contribute both to the practical concerns of people in an immediate problematic situation and to the goals of social science by joint collaboration within a mutually acceptable ethical framework". By `collaboration', he does not mean that the roles of the researcher and the practitioner are identical, but that the views and ideas of both of them about the action and research are of equal weight. In Kelly's words, simultaneous-integrated action research is "an attempt to combine a research component with a respect for participants' knowledge and understanding" so that "action and research are integrated and proceed simultaneously" (Kelly, 1985, p.132). Kemmis (1994) brings this idea of collaboration a step further by viewing action research as a form of "participatory and collaborative research aimed at .... involving those affected in the research process." In other words, action research is not just a matter of individual inquiry, but concerns the people affected and the social context in which the individual works.

From the above discussion of the definitions of action research, it is shown that there are different forms of action research depending on the understanding of the roles of action and research, the extent of collaboration between the researcher, the teacher and the people concerned, and the aims to be achieved. The different forms of action research do not suggest necessarily that one form of it is better than another. What they indicate is that

with their different emphases and concerns, they are each more appropriate for different purposes, problems and situations.

It was not my intention to categorize my study into any one form of action research. What was most important was to relate features of action research to the purpose and context of my study. Broadly speaking, my study involved the features of different forms of action research. First of all, it was undertaken by a teacher as researcher. This is a most common feature among the different forms of action research. As far as its purpose was concerned, it was not the sort of "systematic self-critical enquiry" as advocated by Stenhouse (1985a) nor was it an enquiry into a specific problem faced by a specific class as suggested by Elliott (1978). Rather, it was an enquiry into the general problems of learning English faced by the secondary one students in Hong Kong as a whole. But a specific class was chosen for a systematic enquiry into the application of a new approach (2L-LEA) to the class in search for a way to help students cope with the language demands on them. In the process of application, the specific needs and response of the class were to be taken into consideration and used as feedback data to modify the approach. The aim of this was twofold : to contribute to the understanding of the feasibility of 2L-LEA for the target students, and to bring change and improvement to the learning of English among the students of the specific class. In other words, the action research that I carried out was to have implications for both the knowledge of a theory and for the English learning context of a specific class. This will also be beneficial to other practioners reflecting on the case for their own circumstances.

To summarize, a qualitative approach which involved the features of a case study and an action research enquiry was adopted for this study, and different types of data were collected by different techniques to provide a more reliable and meaningful picture of the final analysis.

VI.2 Data Collection

Different types of data were collected to provide a more balanced feedback as to the feasibility of the application of the proposed 2L-LEA programme for the target students. The issues of validity and objectivity are often a criticism to insider or participant observation techniques. In order to check or cross-check the validity of the data and the interpretations of their relationships and meaning, one of the methods suggested is triangulation (Walker et al., 1976). Triangulation is a self-monitoring technique for the teacher-researcher, which involves gathering accounts of a teaching situation from three quite different points of view -- those of the teacher, the students, and a participant observer. The process of gathering accounts from three distinct perspectives has an `epistemological justification' and the comparison of them will provide a fuller picture of what the situation actually is.

As the present study lasted two years, the regular invitation of a participant observer (e.g a colleague of mine) into lessons was not a practicable one because the teachers had a very tight teaching schedule everyday and they would prefer to use their very limited one or two free periods a day for lesson preparation or marking work. But with other types of data collected through various techniques (see the discussion below), the data and the techniques could complement and supplement each other and fill in the gaps of information.

It is a much emphasized view shared by advocates of action research like Ebbutt (1985), Stenhouse (1985a), and Hustler et al. (1986), that teacher-researchers should be prepared to subject themselves and their practice to critical scrutiny by making their process of action research explicit through publication of the written word. As this study was a case study conducted through

action research, it attempted to present a record of different types of data collected to allow others to judge the interpretation and meaning of the findings. The following is a brief description of the types of data planned to be collected and the ways of collecting them were as follows. Detailed discussion of the data collected will be found in the section on the main study.

VI.2.1 Data from Students

VI.2.1.1 Attitude and Academic Self-image towards English learning

Questionnaires on attitude and academic self-image towards English learning were given to students at the beginning of the programme and at the end of it to see if any changes had taken place among students during the action research.

VI.2.1.2 Informal Feedback to 2L-LEA Activities

To minimize the possibility of students feeling intimidated in a formal interview to give answers that they think the teacher-researcher would like to hear, questions about students' reaction to various 2L-LEA activities were asked informally during individual conferences. Moreover, students were asked to give their written comments and suggestions about the 2L-LEA programme at the end of each term anonymously.

VI.2.1.3 Examination/Test Results

The study did not aim at collecting quantitative test results through standardized tests. However, in the school context, it was very convenient to get hold of results of tests or exams that students took. These results were consulted for reference to see if target students were in any ways advantaged or disadvantaged in their English performance throughout the period of study.

VI.2.1.4 Examples of Work

These included anything made or produced by the target students such as the reading materials they produced, their work of creative writing, their word banks (the numbers of words they learn) and the class publications.

VI.2.2 Data from Teacher-Researcher

VI.2.2.1 Observation and Reflection

This included descriptions of what a single student or a group of students or the whole class did over a period of time. In this study, the teacher-researcher kept a diary of every 2L-LEA lesson, noting down its length, location, activities, students' reaction, and any special happenings[39] as well as the teacher-researcher's own comments and reflection of experience.

VI.2.2.2 Assessment of Students' Performance

The teacher-researcher kept a record of each student's informal and formal assessment in the form of comments, check list, and grades/marks.

VI.2.3 Others

These referred particularly to relevant comments from other teachers or intermittent participant observers in the classroom. As these were mainly informal comments, the teacher-researcher would make notes of about them either during or after the instance, depending on the appropriateness of the situation.

Some 2L-LEA lessons and individual or group experience conferences were recorded on cassette tape to help the teacher-

researcher in writing the lesson diary and notes of students' comments.

VI.2.4 Treatment of Data

The data collected in the pilot study (January 1989 - June 1989) were used to revise the 2L-LEA programme for the target group in the main study (September 1989 - June 1990). The data collected in the main study were used for an overall evaluation of the programme. A case study report[40] would be made for the action research with the target students, with results being presented according to the type and nature of the data.

Section B: Phase I 1988-89

VI.3 The Pilot Study

VI.3.1 The target students

Owing to the time-table arrangement of the school, the group of lower secondary students that served as my target students in the pilot study was half of an M.2 English remedial class (see Note 36). Although they were different from the target group of the main study in that they did not have to face the immediate demand on them to learn other subjects through the English medium, the family background and the difficulties they experienced in learning English were similar to those of the F.1 students. The 2L-LEA programme was, therefore, still relevant and meaningful to them and the findings would be useful for the main study with the F.1 students.

VI.3.2 Procedures and Various Arrangements

In the first term (i.e. September 1988 - January 1989), I did not plan or try any 2L-LEA activities at all, but simply followed the teaching plans worked out by the other English teachers. It was a period for my own adjustment to the school routine. The second term (i.e. Feb. 89 - June 89) was the pilot stage during which I had an initial try out of some 2L-LEA activities. The students' initial feedback was collected so that modifications could be made to the 2L-LEA programme during the main study in the academic year that followed (i.e. September 1989 - June 1990).

Although the school agreed to let me use the 2L-LEA approach with the M.2 students, one thing I could not break away from was the reality that my students had to sit for the same general tests and exams set for all other classes of the same level. In other words, the content of my English lessons could not deviate too much

from the teaching plan mentioned above. I understood the position of the school and I did not insist the school make any change for me. Owing to the constraints in the school curriculum, the study was not conducted in a systematic way in the sense that 2L-LEA activites were employed mainly as supplementary activities added to the existing teaching plan. I still used the textbook and other exercises produced by my colleagues. 2L-LEA was used whenever I found I could integrate it into my teaching.

Basically, I kept a diary to record briefly what I did for each lesson and also special responses from students, if any. As far as data from students were concerned, a questionnaire (Appendix 3) was given to the students at the beginning of the first term to gather from them their attitude towards English learning and to ask them how they like English lessons. A similar questionnaire (Appendix 4) was given to them at the end of the second term, with some alterations so that their responses to 2L-LEA could be collected. The questionnaires were set in Chinese so as to ensure that every student understood what were asked and that they would also be able to express themselves more precisely. The very packed timetable, the heavy workload of the teachers in school, and the sometimes spontaneous nature of the 2L-LEA activities made it quite difficult to arrange for the presence of a participant observer during the lessons.

I did not tell the students directly that I would be using a different approach in the second term. No ice-breaking or orientation activities were employed because the teacher-researcher and the students had known each other quite well. But students were informed of a few changes that would take place at the beginning of the term. These changes included:

(a) Keeping a word bank each -- Every student was asked to keep a vocabulary book as their personal word bank. They were supposed to enter new words or personally significant words

that they had learned into the word bank. Students were to help to check their partners' knowledge of the words in the word bank from time to time and mark an 'X' against words that they had forgotten.

(b) A new way of marking written work -- As for marking the students' individual work (composition/experience stories), I tried to focus my marking on only grammatical structures that students should have learned. The purpose was an attempt not to over-correct students' work. A written explanation of my intention was given to students (Appendix 5) and they were asked to stick it on the inside of the cover of their composition book so that if their parents had any queries about the marking, they could refer to the explanation. But with group/class experience stories printed for class reading, I often corrected most of the mistakes so that the input to students contained more fluent English.

(c) Grouping -- Students were to form themselves into groups of five members each for group activities and each group was to have a group name so that there was a stronger sense of belonging.

(d) Individual/Group conferences -- At the beginning of the second term, I posted on the classroom notice-board slots of off-lesson time for conferences -- i.e. meeting students to listen to their experience stories. Students were to sign up for one individual conference, and one group conference. Students came to see me individually for the former, and in the groups they belonged to for the latter. Students' word banks would also be checked in these conferences.

(e) A more flexible English timetable -- There were 9 English periods per 6 day cycle. The English periods would no longer be rigidly divided into lessons for separate purposes like

dictation, reader, comprehension, composition etc., but would be flexibly allocated for different activities according to the development of the topic / content area that was being undertaken. The only exceptions were the ETV (Educational television) lesson and the Listening lesson, because students were timetabled by the school to go to special rooms for these lessons.

Apart from telling students about the structural changes of timetabling and the various new arrangements above, I did not tell them about the changes that would take place in my teaching approach, hoping that they would be able to tell the difference of their English lessons in the second term from their own experience.

As far as the record of students' progress was concerned, nothing new was introduced. Since the students' progress in school work was measured by the marks they got in assignments, tests and exams, and their promotion to the next year of study was to be determined by these marks, it was impossible for me to introduce another scheme of assessment. Verbal feedback was thus something I tried to bring into the class as well as the individual/group conferences.

VI.3.3 2L-LEA Activities Carried out within the Pilot Study

The following is a brief summary of the types of 2L-LEA activities carried out during the piloting stage (for details of the activities, please see Appendix 6). Most of these activities, (except the conferences) were introduced to enrich some of the topics or teaching points listed in the M.2 teaching plan. In a typical 2L-LEA lesson, the students were encouraged to share their experience or ideas about a certain topic and their verbal or written words would be recorded for further follow-up activities.

small inquiry projects were carried out in the piloting period. The first one was on the topic "Interviewing Tourists". The second one was on "The School Anniversary".

(b) Language Experience Activities to introduce language Structures -- Four different structures were presented and/or consolidated through four 2L-LEA activities.

(c) Student Initiated Lessons -- There were two incidents of students expressing the interest to learn to talk about something in English. 2L-LEA lessons were conducted to help them do so.

(d) Individual/Group Conferences -- In contrast to the above activities, individual/group conferences were conducted not during lesson time. Each student was able to see me twice at off-lesson time within the term, once for the individual conference and the second time for the group conference.

VI.3.4 Feedback and Reflections

VI.3.4.1 Feedback from Students

Students' feedback was collected through various means. First of all, two similar questionnaires were given to students, one at the beginning of the first term and the other at the end of the second term so that a comparison of students' attitudes towards English learning and their self image could be compared. The second questionnaire was different from the first one in that items 5, 6, and 8 in the first questionnaire were replaced by three other items. Moreover, at the end of the second question, an open-ended question was set, asking students to write down their opinions of the English lessons they had for the year.

The responses to the two questionnaires can be seen in Appendix 7. On the whole, students seemed to like English lessons more than before. The number of students who liked English lessons increased from 7 (out of 20) in the first term to 12, and no one expressed any dislike of English lessons in the second term. Half of them also expressed that they liked the individual conference in the second term. But at the same time, students felt that they had worked less hard than before in English (the number of those who had often worked hard in English dropped from 6 in the first term to 2 in the second term), and also that they had not made much progress in this subject (16 of them thought they had made little progress or even done worse in English). Similarly, they were dissatisfied with their academic performance in general (13 in the second term as compared to 9 in the first term).

As for students' answers to the open ended question in the second term about their comments on the teaching of English, there were more positive than negative answers (see Appendix 8 for a translation of their comments). The students' answers showed that they realized a switch of the teacher's teaching method had taken place in the second term, and most of them called the new method "activity method" for this was the term loosely used in Hong Kong to refer to teaching methods which involved students in activities and thus breaking away from the traditional teacher-talk approach. They seemed to respond well to this change. Responses to item 9 of the questionnaire at the end of second term was also quite positive. Only 2 out of 20 said that they disliked the individual conference. Moreover, looking at these answers together with the response they made about their poor progress in English this year, I think the general feeling of the students could be best described by the comments of one of the students -- "This year the English lessons are conducted in a more activity-based method. The advantage of it is that lessons are more lively and interesting, but the disadvantage is that many things in the book are not taught so we learn less English". Students liked more varieties in the

English lessons and at the same time they would like their knowledge of English to be more "substantial" and to be learned through the "hard" way.

Some informal feedback from students was also gathered through students' verbal responses during the lessons. When the students received the printed reading material of their group work for their first 2L-LEA activity on "Interviewing Tourists", they expressed surprise that the teacher had taken such trouble to type out their work. This reflected that students' work was rarely treated with "respect" and they needed to be given the message that their work was of value and they themselves could contribute to their own learning. On the occasion when the students received the typed out tapescript of the lesson conducted by the expatriate teacher, they expressed appreciation of my effort in transcribing the whole lesson. One even said she would work harder because of my effort, which was very encouraging indeed.

VI.3.4.2 Students' Academic Performance

Although students seemed to consider themselves as having made less effort in learning English and doing poorly in English as well as in other subjects, there was no significant indication in their General Test or Examination results that they performed worse than their counterparts (i.e. Group A, the other half of Class M.2B) or that their academic performance in the second term was poorer than that in the first term. The feeling that learning through activities, group work etc. is not real learning is probably not confined to language learning. It seems a common phenomenon that learners learning through these ways do not feel they have learned as much or more precisely they are not sure what they have learned as clearly as when they have been given some instruction, a finite task against which their own attainments can be measured by themselves.

VI.3.4.3 Feedback from Other Teachers

My colleague, Miss Lee, who taught Group A of Class M.2B and also Class M.2A once remarked that my group of students were more responsive, active and could cope with oral English better, whereas her group worked harder but were weaker in listening and oral English. Her impression was based on her observation of my group's performance during the English ETV lessons, for the whole class was timetabled to watch the ETV lesson together and we used to take turns in teaching the English ETV lesson.

Dr. John Clark, the then Vice-Principal of the Institute of Language in Education, had also visited my class once. He attended the inter-group quiz lesson at the end of May. His comments after the lesson was that it was difficult to judge the success of the 2L-LEA in just one lesson, but it was clear that students were involved in the lesson and their participation contributed to their learning process.

VI.3.4.4 My Own Reflections

I had greatly enjoyed the experience of this pilot study although I could not say that 2L-LEA was employed in full swing. As has been discussed above, I still used the textbooks and other supplementary materials prepared by my colleagues. 2L-LEA activities or activities with a 2L-LEA flavour were mainly used to complement and supplement the existing syllabus. I tried to integrate them into my teaching of the themes or the language points listed on the teaching plan whenever I could. Nevertheless, these activities did help to bring life and fun to the English lessons and it brought much encouragement to me to see students enjoy the lessons.

From my experience this year, it was quite apparent that students were active agents in learning. They enjoyed varieties and

more active participation in the lessons. The class I had this year had expressed more than once their appreciation of my effort in transcribing what they said and reproducing some of their work as reading/teaching materials for the class. In fact, what was also revealed here was their uncertainty of the value of their work. They did not realize that their contribution to the lesson could be of much value to their own learning and were thus surprised to find the teacher taking the trouble to record and reproduce what they said and showed it to the class. I think it is important that the learning process experienced by the students should be able to build up their self-confidence instead of reinforcing their belief that the work they produce is always not up to standard and that the teacher is the sole disseminator of knowledge.

My experience also showed that it is dangerous for the teacher to push students to do a task which they are not confident of doing or not motivated enough to do. This is perhaps an experience not confined to teachers experimenting with 2L-LEA, but I would say that it is quite crucial for the 2L-LEA teachers because the nature of the approach requires an active contribution of language and experience from the students themselves rather than purely responding to input provided by the teacher. I had an unsuccessful experience in motivating students to do the inquiry project on "The School Anniversary". My own evaluation of this activity afterwards was that I had over-estimated the students' confidence and ability to handle the task on their own and did not provide as much help as I did for the first project on "Interviewing Tourists". Moreover, the preparation time was insufficient, thus students were rather overwhelmed by the whole idea of this project.

As far as word banks were concerned, not much thought was given to the planning of an effective use of the word banks by me, and naturally, students were not very motivated to put words into their word banks. Most of them tended to put into their word banks a few words a day or two before it was their turn for individual

conference as I would ask them to show me their word banks and checked if they knew the spelling and meaning of the words. Moreover, most of the words in their word banks were words taken from the text books which they had to learn for dictations.

Comparatively, I found the individual or group conferences much more well received and I myself enjoyed the time listening to students telling me their experience stories. I found students could express themselves better, both in speech and in writing, if I was beside them, negotiating meaning with them and reminding them of certain grammatical points. Since these conferences were not conducted at lesson time, but at lunch time or after school, I found myself quite exhausted sometimes.

When students were writing compositions all at the same time, it was quite impossible to negotiate meaning with individual students all at once, so marking of students' work had to be done by the teacher alone. I tried to focus my marking on only certain grammatical structures each time in order not to overcorrect the students' work, thus discouraging them from writing. But I must admit that I sometimes found it difficult to stop myself from underlining mistakes that came into my eyes. With group reports and materials printed for class reading, I often corrected most of the mistakes so that the input to students contained more fluent English.

An 2L-LEA activity which I did not carry out this year was the publication of students' experience stories. For one reason, it would take up quite a lot of time to do so; for another reason, the idea sounded very novel to the students when I once raised it and they were not confident enough to think that others would be interested in reading their written work. As an alternative, I tried typing out some of the better written work of students for the class to read, and hoped that this would serve as another form of encouragement to the students.

What I treasured most from the year's teaching and research was the good rapport and relationship built up with the students. In the past, I used to know the class of which I was the class mistress really well; but this was the first time that I found myself knowing the class so well that I felt myself being their class mistress. The trust built up in this year continued that even though I did not teach them again and left the school a year later, I have been keeping in touch with about half of the class till the present time.

As I look back at what was completed in the year, and especially in the second term when the pilot study started, I found a great deal of inadequacies in the planning, the trying out, and the evaluation stages. It was not easy to be a full-time teacher and a researcher at the same time. What I found most inadequate was the insufficient time I had for the planning and the design of the study. As far as actual teaching is concerned, apart from preparation, many 2L-LEA activities require the teacher to be sensitive in responding appropriately to students' needs and interests during lessons and also conduct followup work immediately, such as transcribing a taped recording of part of the lesson, typing up student's experience stories and some other miscellaneous work. It was rather difficult for me to focus all my attention on the research only and ignore my other teaching duties. Sometimes, I was also torn between the decision of whether to follow the syllabus or to divert from it and do something different. Worries of how the school, students and parents would react to my experimentation of a new approach was also hanging over the back of my mind though I had never really encountered any direct challenge from these parties.

Although I think the inadequacies I experienced as a teacher-researcher were the limitations of the study carried out by an action researcher, they are at the same time realities that teachers face in the school. If the 2L-LEA is to be relevant to

teachers in the school, it should not be tried out in a controlled laboratory with everything well designed and under control. It is very useful that the pilot study revealed the actual limitations posed by the reality so that the study proper could explore how the teachers could cope with them in the process of introducing something new to the curriculum. The experience gained in the pilot study was extremely valuable to the planning of the next stage of my study.

VI.3.5 Implications for the Main Study

The above section seems to reflect a general positive feedback from students, the teacher-researcher, and other teachers to the initial try out of incorporating 2L-LEA into the English curriculum of an M.2B (Group B) class. Although the positive feedback could not be accredited entirely to the use of 2L-LEA, it could not be denied that 2L-LEA was the most significant element introduced to the students in the second term.

From a more reserved point of view, one could at least conclude that the introduction of 2L-LEA into the English curriculum had not brought any bad effects to the actual academic results of the target students in the pilot study. As the duration of the pilot study was only one term, it was difficult to judge whether students could learn English better with 2L-LEA. What we could gather from the students' feedback was that they found themselves enjoying the English lessons more. In other words, this implied that it was feasible to incorporate 2L-LEA into the existing English curriculum without interfering with students' learning. Rather, it seemed to raise their interest in English lessons. It was therefore worth trying to pursue the study of incorporating 2L-LEA into the existing English curriculum of the target students for a longer duration and see if there were any significant changes in some specific aspects. Apart from students'

attitude towards the learning of English, it was worth exploring students' perception of their performance with regard to the learning of English. This was because in the second questionnaire of the pilot study, students tended to express the view that they had worked less hard and made less progress in English. An incorporation of an academic self-image attitude scale into the questionnaires used for the main study would be appropriate. Moreover, concrete data on students' performance in English would also be of help in providing information from another angle.

Although the study was not supposed to be an experimental study with a control group of students, the experience in the pilot study showed that comparison of the target group could quite conveniently be made with the other half of the class. As the two groups belonged to the same remedial class with similar language abilities and needs, a comparison of their attitudes towards the learning of English before and after 2L-LEA was applied to the target group could have shed more light on the effect of the new approach on students. Such information would be especially useful to the main study if data from a third-party participant observer could not be obtained.

The pilot study also showed that although there were constraints within the school for employing 2L-LEA fully, it was possible to supplement the existing syllabus with the approach. This can be done by pre-planning before the term starts so that 2L-LEA lessons can either supplement the theme or the language points that are to be taught. Spontaneous 2L-LEA lessons initiated by students or teacher were also found to be very stimulating because of their relevance to the interests or needs of the students. The experience in the pilot study also showed that it was not practicable to plan 2L-LEA lessons systematically at regular intervals because (a) 2L-LEA was only playing a supplementary role in the present structure of the curriculum so that it could only be employed whenever suitable; and (b) if we were to take into

consideration special spontaneous events which trigger 2L-LEA lessons, no pre-planning could be made.

The experience in the pilot study indicated that the only thing that could be planned more systematically was the individual and group conferences. Since individual conferences were held outside lesson time, the teacher-researcher could work out the time schedule for these conferences beforehand. In the pilot study, it was possible for the teacher-researcher to meet every student twice for individual conferences in one term. The individual conferences in the pilot study proved to be a very rewarding time for the teacher-researcher to get to know the students more and to help them express meaning in words more confidently and learn to proof-read their work more carefully. It is thus worth investing more time in this aspect. As for students who are shy or not used to facing the teacher individually, group or pair conference may be more welcoming to them.

With regard to the marking of students' written work, it was found to be an uneasy task to focus the marking of students' mistakes only on certain specific language structures each time. The main reason was focussing on certain language structures seemed practicable only if the composition was a closely guided one, so that students would use the taught structures or vocabulary to write their compositions. If students were allowed to write freely, they differed very much in their mistakes and also there were sometimes so many mistakes in their writings that it was difficult to decide which mistakes should be corrected and which not. This implies that focussed marking on certain language structures would not work on a class basis, but might still be applied to individual work (i.e. the focus will be different for different piece of writing), but more thinking needs to go into the actual implementation of this marking so as to make it possible even for writings full of mistakes.

In short, the pilot study had signalled positive findings to the main research questions of (a) whether 2L-LEA could make English lessons more interesting and effective for the target class; and (b) whether 2L-LEA activities are feasible for second language learning. The major implications for the main study would, therefore, be as follows:

(1) Owing to the nature of 2L-LEA, its supplementary role in the curriculum and the fact that it was a study carried out by a teacher, a very structured and systematic research singling out 2L-LEA for study was not feasible and should not be the goal of the main study. Rather the main study should continue to be an action research study carried out by a practising teacher in a natural classroom setting.

(2) The main study should last for one academic year so that the effects of 2L-LEA could be more explicit.

(3) Class experience stories which worked well with students should still be the major classroom activity in the main study. Class experience story sessions could be preplanned to a certain extent by relating them to themes/topics in the teaching plan or to special school occasions and times of the year. No preplanning, however, could be made for spontaneous class experience stories.

(4) Individual conferences should continue to be held outside lesson time. As some students found it more relaxing to share a joint experience story with their peers, pair conferences would also be scheduled.

(5) It would not be practicable to mark students' writing work by focusing on a specific language structure each time for the whole class. Rather, individual students should be given different feedback and asked to focus on different language points according to their own work.

(6) Publication of class stories was to be organised.

(7) More concrete data about students' attitude towards the learning of English, their academic self-image and performance in English should be collected to provide more specific

analysis of the effect of the new approach on students.

(8) It was also advisable to obtain such data from a similar group of students which did not receive 2L-LEA instructions so that the study results would not be simply made up of data gathered from those who were directly involved in the study.

VI.3.6 Changes in the Main Study

Based on the experience of the Pilot Study, the following changes were made in the Main Study.

(1) The Main study lasted for one academic year instead of one term.

(2) Pair conferences were scheduled in addition to individual conferences.

(3) Students were asked to do personalised correction work for their guided writing.

(4) The idea of publication of class stories was introduced to the students early in the term and an editorial committee was formed.

(5) Both the prestudy and the poststudy questionnaires included questions on students' attitude towards the learning of English and their academic self-image in English.

(6) Data from a similar group of students to the target group which did not receive 2L-LEA instructions were collected for informal comparison.

Section C: Phase II 1989-90

VI.4 The Main Study

With the experience gained from the pilot study, the main study was carried out in the 1989-90 academic year with a F.1 remedial group.

VI.4.1 Readiness of the School

After my pilot study with the M.2 class, it was quite apparent that students liked the changes experienced in their English lessons. As the pilot study had gone smoothly, the school was very supportive in letting me try 2L-LEA with a F.1 class for my main study.

As usual, the yearly teaching plan of every subject at every year level was worked out in the beginning of the first term. As stated before, teachers teaching the same year level were to follow the plan so that general test papers and exam papers could be set with the understanding that the same content had been covered. The implication of this for my study was that 2L-LEA activities were to be used as supplementary activities to the core content of English specified in the teaching plan (Appendix 2).

VI.4.2 Target Students

The school was able to arrange for me to teach students of the F.1 level for the academic year of 1989-90. The class I taught was F.1D which was a remedial language class. The students in this class were supposed to be poor in either one or both of the English and the Chinese language. The class consisted of 43 students which split up into two groups, A and B, during the English and the Chinese lessons. The groups were taught by two different English

teachers and two Chinese teachers so that more teacher help could be given to students in a smaller class. The screening of students into this class was made before the beginning of the first term. Students sat for two tests, an English test and a Chinese test. Test A (English) of the Hong Kong Attainment Test, Series I, prepared for Junior Secondary 1 students by the Education Department (Appendix 9) was used as the English paper, and students' results were considered together with their Chinese test results as the basis for screening. In other words, these 43 students were those who performed poorly in either one or both of the Chinese and the English languages in relation to the rest of the F.1 students who took part in the screening tests.

As far as English was concerned, the two groups of students were split into half by the alphabetical order of their roll call list. I taught the second half of the class (i.e. Group B) which was made up of 22 students, and another English teacher, Miss Lee, taught the first half (i.e. Group A) of the class which was made up of 21 students. There was no special rationale behind the assigning of teachers to the two groups.

With regard to the background of students in Group B, the pre-study questionnaires received (Appendix 10) provided the following information. Only one out of the twenty-two students came from an English medium primary school. The rest were all from Chinese primary schools. More than half of them (13 students) were from the school's feeder primary school which situated in the same campus. About half of them rated their parents' command of English as average, and nearly one third of them rated their parents' command of English as rather poor or none. Parental support in their learning, however, was strong. About half of them felt that their parents often encouraged them to learn English or helped them with their school work. On the whole, the students did not have much exposure to English in their own time for most of them said they only sometimes watch English TV programmes or read English story

books.

As for the other half of the same class (i.e. Group A), academic and family background of the students were very much similar to those of Group B. (For details of students' background, see Section VI.4.4.3 below.)

VI.4.3 Implementation

VI.4.3.1 Construction and Administration of Questionnaires and Interview Questions

Experience in the pilot study showed that more preparation was needed to work out different ways of collecting students' responses so that the data could be more valid and useful for discussion. In this study, students' responses were collected through written questionnaires, interviews and informal oral feedback during lesson time.

Two sets of questions were constructed for this study. One was the prestudy questionnaire (Appendix 10) given to students during the first English lesson in the first term. The other was the post-study questionnaire (Appendix 11) given out on the last day of school in the second term. The questionnaires were revised ones from those used in the pilot study.

The purposes of the prestudy questionnaire were (i) to collect some information about the students' personal background; and (ii) to have a fair idea of the students' academic self-image with respect to English learning as well as their attitude towards the learning of English.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A was made up of 9 questions focussing mainly on the personal background of the student. This section was to find out information about the

support the students received from their parents, especially on their learning of English. That was why questions 3 to 6 were all related to their parents. The information might be useful if parental help was to be utilized for certain LEA activities. Question 1 was to find out if the student was a F.1 repeater. Questions 2, 7, 8 and 9 were to find out the extent of English exposure that the students had had so far.

Section B was made up of 15 statements to which the student had to respond by choosing from 3 response categories. This section was to find out about the academic self-image students had of themselves with special regard to English learning. Most of the questionnaires related to English learning were in the area of learners' motivation or language attitude for the prediction of language attainment (Pierson, Fu & Lee, 1980). It was not the aim of this questionnaire to explore the relationship of attitudinal variables and language attainment, examples of questionnaires measuring self-image were consulted and the academic self-image scale developed by Joan Barker-Lunn (1970) (in Cohen, 1976, p.111) was modified for my purpose. The reasons for adapting this scale were:

(i) The statements were constructed from the responses of 400 4th year boys and girls. In other words, the children were of an age group close to my target class and the scale was regarded as having high internal consistency (Cohen, 1976).

(ii) It was a short measure (9 statements only) of the child's view of himself in terms of school work. The language and the 3-category response format were clearer and simpler as compared to other attitude or self-image scales. It was more suitable for the level of my target class.

Nevertheless, since this was only a general academic self-image scale rather than a self-image scale related to second language learning, it was adapted for the purpose of this study by changing the wordings of certain statements. In Barker-Lunn's Scale

(see Appendix 12a) out of the 9 items, there were 3 pairs of items expressing a similar idea each but differently phrased. They were items 1 and 5, 2 and 3, 8 and 9. This was probably a means of internal check of item reliability (Oppenheim, 1992, p.147).

As the first pair of items (items 1 and 5) were related to the student's performance in sums, they were rephrased so that they referred to English rather than to sums (see statements 10 and 24 in my questionnaire).

The second pair of items (items 2 and 3) were related to the student's performance in school work. I found the two statements not very well phrased because they appeared to be simply the exact opposite of each another ("I think I'm pretty good at school work" vs. "I'm useless at school work"). The former statement was, therefore, rephrased to "I am quite satisfied with my school work in general" (see item 17 in my questionnaire). As the latter statement expressed an idea similar to the third pair of items in Barker Lunn's Scale (items 8 and 9), it was discarded and replaced by a different statement which had more relevance to the learning of English in school -- "I think the English text books are easy for me" (see item 22 in my questionnaire).

The third pair of items (items 8 and 9) were related to the student's attitude to his overall performance, they were retained wihout any modification. As for the remaining items (i.e. no. 4, 6, 7) they were rephrased so that they were not simply statements reflecting the student's academic self-image, but their self-image as seen through their experience of English learning (see statements 19, 15, and 11 in my questionnaire).

The above discussion shows Barker-Lunn's Academic Self-image Scale was adapted for the purpose of the questionnaire. Moreover, a few more items were added to find out more about how the students rated themselves against specific English language skills and also

their attitude to the learning of English. So statements 12, 13, 20 and 23 were constructed on the basis of more specific activities. Statements 25, 14 and 16 were put in to gather information about students' reactions as to whether they knew the purpose of learning English, whether they liked English lessons and whether they worked hard in the subject. The scores for the different response to the item statements are shown in Appendix 12b.

As for the poststudy questionnaire, it kept Section B of the prestudy questionnaire as its Section A for it aimed at collecting data to find out if there was any change in students' academic self-image in relation to learning English and also their attitude towards English learning. The section on personal and family background was omitted as there would not be much change to this information in a year's time. Rather a new Section B was added to the post-study questionnaire with 4 questions. Question 1 was to find out if students were aware of any significant differences in their English lessons in that year. Question 2 and 3 were questions asking directly whether students liked English lessons and whether their motivation in learning English was raised. The answers for these two questions were used to validate answers for item 14 ("I like English lessons") and item 16 ("I work hard in English") in Section A. Question 4 was included to collect feedback for the school on a reading scheme which promoted students to read more library books.

These two sets of questionnaires were given to the students in their Chinese versions. This was to avoid any misinterpretation of the instructions and questions due to the choice of language. Both Group A and Group B (target group) of Class F.1D were asked to complete the two questionnaires during lesson time, one at the beginning of the school year and the other at the end of the school year, and students did not need to put their names on the questionnaires.

Interviews with individual students of the target group (Group B) were also held at the end of the first and the last round of individual conferences after students had shared their experience stories. These interviews were conducted in Chinese so as to encourage students to express themselves freely. (See Appendix 13a and 13b for the English version of the questions asked during the two interviews.) The first interview was a short and informal one conducted at the beginning of the school year. Only three questions were asked for the teacher to have a feel about students' adaptation to life in secondary school and to the learning of English. Students' responses were recorded after the interview to avoid creating any unnecessary anxiety to the students. Questions asked in the second interview, i.e. towards the end of the school year, aimed at collecting information about the extent students liked/disliked specific 2L-LEA activities. Some of the questions (e.g. questions 1 and 2) were very structured in that students were asked to rate their preferences on a 5 point scale. But whenever appropriate, the teacher would probe more deeply, using open-ended questions to obtain more information about the thinking of the students. The responses of each student were jotted down on a different index card. The responses collected from the interviews were used to supplement the responses to the questionnaires as well as the impression gathered from the lessons.

As for informal oral responses during 2L-LEA lessons, they were spontaneous and unpredictable. What I did was to record any relevant responses into the diary for future reference.

VI.4.3.2 Keeping a Teacher-researcher's Teaching Diary

The Teaching Diary I used was an exercise book with its pages being divided into columns. Each column stood for a lesson and 9 columns were marked on every two pages, which represented the number of English lessons in a cycle. Within the space of each column, rough notes of what was done in a particular lesson was

written down. Usually, I used pencil to draw up a scheme for every one or two cycles in advance on the basis of the teaching plan. After every lesson, I put in what was actually done if it was different from what was planned, and made corresponding changes to the lessons that were to come, if necessary. A red pen was used specially for recording responses from students or my own feeling about a particular lesson, if they were worth noting down. There was no special framework for recording these diary notes of students' responses and teacher's feelings. The reason for such practice was that being a teacher-researcher, I did not want to have any presumptions or any structure of observation in mind which would colour my way of looking at things. What I did was simply jotting down anything which impressed me most immediately after the lesson or some time later, depending on the practical situation.

VI.4.3.3 Orientation of the Students

On the first formal school day of the first term, I had a double period (80 mins) with the target students. The double period was used for ice-breaking and orientation activities. The two activities chosen were simply to let students get to know one another and had a feel of the relaxed atmosphere that I would like to build into the English lessons.

After completing the pre-study questionnaire, students were engaged in the first activity which was to get to know their neighbours. They had to ask their neighbours for information and then introduce their neighbours to the class in two sentences: "My neighbour is called _____." and "She likes _____."

The second activity conducted was a free-association exercise. Ten students were invited to go to the blackboard on a voluntary basis and write down what came to their mind as they heard the cue "English". They could write their associations in either English or Chinese. Then another ten students were invited to do a similar

exercise as they heard the cue "English lesson". After this, we looked at the associations together and talked about the implications.

The discussion then led me into the sharing of my own experience in learning English and my expectations of them. I told them how I was overwelmed by the amount of English that I had to learn and use when I began my F.1 school life and how I benefitted from reading my own as well as my classmates compositions. I found it much easier to learn from my classmates' writing than from other books as their level and experience/thoughts were much closer to mine. I told the class that they might find the approach I used in teaching English different from what they had before, but I did not tell them specifically what the differences would be. I only told them that they were expected to get more involved in lessons, be supportive to one another and be more self-directed in learning. A few other technical matters such as timetabling, exercise books / folders to keep for various purposes were also explained to students.

VI.4.3.4 Timetable Arrangement

Lessons in the school were arranged in a 6 day cycle. There were 9 periods in each cycle for F.1 English. Each period lasted for 40 minutes. The common practice in most primary schools and secondary schools in Hong Kong is to have the English periods rigidly divided into lessons for separate purposes like dictation, General English, comprehension, composition etc.. To build in more meaningful linkage between lessons and to allow more flexibility for 2L-LEA activities, students were told on the first day that lessons in a cycle would be flexibly allocated for different activities according to the development of the topic / content area undertaken at the time. The only exceptions were the Educational Television lesson (ETV) and the Listening lesson, during which students were timetabled by the school to go to special rooms.

VI.4.3.5 2L-LEA Activities in the Classroom

VI.4.3.5.1 Experience Stories

Experience in the pilot study showed that 2L-LEA activities in the form of experience stories within the classroom were difficult to plan for the whole year (see Section VI.3.5). There were two main reasons for this. Firstly, 2L-LEA activities which developed from spontaneous experience sharing elicited from particular incidents could not be planned beforehand. Secondly, although some 2L-LEA activities related to the themes stated in the Teaching Plan could be planned, the planning could not go too far in advance as the teacher-researcher had to keep pace with the development of the core content as well as the students' response and readiness. Therefore, the progress of students in following the development of the teaching plan was reviewed every cycle and considerations of whether experience story telling activities related to themes in the Teaching Plan could be introduced was made for about two cycles in advance.

In short, I adopted a pragmatic policy to incorporate experience story telling activities whenever appropriate. Such activities were always conducted with the whole class or in groups during lesson time. Individual experience sharing sessions were done during individual conference time after lessons.

I basically grouped the experience stories that I guided the class to produce into 4 types -- namely, experience stories related to themes in the teaching plan, experience stories on current news, experience stories related to special occasions, and experience stories with experience provided by teacher. Different ways of eliciting experience stories were used for different sessions.

The following is a tabular summary of the experience story sessions held in class in the academic year of 89/90:

(a) Experience Stories Related to Themes/Topics in the Teaching Plan

Date	No. of Periods	Experience Story	Elicited by	Purpose
8.9.89 11.9.89	1 1	My New School	Questions by teacher	To lead students into a series of activities under the theme of "At School"
19.9.89	1 1/2	Classroom English	Group Competi-tion	To promote students to use more English in the classroom
13.2.90 21.2.90	1 2	An Accident	A compre-hension passage in the textbook	To serve as a follow-up activity for students to respond to a reading text by sharing similar experiences verbally as well as in writing
9.4.90 26.4.90	1 1	Letter of Advice	Letters seeking advice on problems	To serve as a follow-up activity for students to respond to a reading text by sharing their views and putting down the consensus in writing

(b) Experience Stories on Current News

Date	No. of Periods	Experience Story	Elicited by	Purpose of
20.10.89	1	The Earth-quake	Teacher initiated discussion	To create reading material for the class
20.11.89 28.11.89	1/2 1	The Royal Visit	Coloured pictures from news-papers	To create reading material for the class
21.3.90	1	A Robbery	Newspaper Report	To create reading material for the class

(c) Experience Stories Related to Special Occasions

Date	No. of Periods	Experience Story	Elicited by	Purpose
5.2.90	1	Chinese New Year	Casual Chat after the new year holiday	To create reading material for the class and to serve as pre-writing activity for an individual writing task
26.2.90	1/4	Cold Days	Student initiated session because of the cold	To create reading material for the class
9.5.90 16.5.90	1 1/2	The School Fun Fair	Recapping what happened and listing words related to the Fun Fair	To serve as a pre-writing activity for an individual writing task
4.6.90	1/4	A Special Day	Casual Chat	To create reading material for the class

(d) Experience Stories with Experience Provided by Teacher

Date	No. of Periods	Experience Story	Elicited by	Purpose
21.9.89	1	Building a Figure with Coloured Rods	Students playing with some coloured rods	To present the use of prepositions
2.5.90	1	Story Retelling	Teacher telling the class a story	To present the use of the present perfect tense

A descriptive record of the above sessions is detailed below:

(a) Language Experience Stories Related to Themes/Topics in the Teaching Plan

My New School (2 periods)

The theme for the first week of school in the teaching plan was "At School". I tried to lead students to the theme by asking them to express what they knew about the school. As this was just the beginning of the students' secondary school life, students were not yet accustomed to an open class discussion. To avoid the anxiety brought about by an open discussion in English, I divided the students into groups of 4 members each and set each group a question (see Appendix 14) to help them focus on one aspect of the school. Students were to share how they felt or what they knew about the question and then jot down their ideas on a piece of paper. I moved from group to group, providing assistance, such as suggesting ideas, and supplying vocabulary for them when required. Each group handed in their work when they finished and the work was typed by me with mistakes corrected and used as teaching material for the next lesson.

Classroom English (1 period)

Instead of teaching students the most commonly used classroom English expressions, I asked students in groups to think of as many classroom English expressions as possible. Then they took turns in saying out a classroom expression one at a time. There was an element of competition in this exercise, for students would not want to be the first group to run out of expressions. I wrote what they said on the blackboard, negotiating meaning in the process and also putting the expressions into different categories. After the activity, students were asked to copy down these expressions into their

notebooks for their own reference (See Appendix 15 -- "The Best of F.1D" p.8).

An Accident (3 periods)

A comprehension passage about a car accident in the textbook was taught, after which the students were asked to think for their homework about an accident that they had experienced, witnessed or heard about, and prepare to tell it to their classmates. In the next lesson, students sat in groups of four members each and told one another what they had prepared. The group members then chose the most special one from their group and wrote it down. The group stories were collected at the end of the lesson and they were typed without any alterations and printed for the students (Appendix 16). Two other periods were then used for students to read over each group's story and they were encouraged to make suggestions to improve the stories. At the end, they were asked to vote for the stories they liked best.

Letter of Advice (2 periods)

After studying a comprehension passage in the textbook about a school counsellor advising a girl who had a problem, students formed groups of 4 members each and they were given a different letter stating a problem. Students discussed the best way(s) of solving the problem and wrote a letter of advice to the person in trouble. Their letters were then collected and printed without alterations (Appendix 17) and used as the teaching material in the follow-up lesson, during which different language points arising from the mistakes were discussed.

(b) Language Experience Stories on Current News

The Earthquake (1 period)

This was a spontaneous LEA lesson. It was the day after the great California Earthquake in October 89. At first, I only planned to talk about this piece of news with students of secondary 4, thinking that it would be more appropriate to their level. But as I walked into the target students' class, it suddenly occurred to me that I could ask if the class had anything to say about the earthquake. To my surprise, when I invited them to tell me about the earthquake, they responded with enthusiasm. As I put down the sentences they supplied on the blackboard, I helped to translate certain Cantonese words into English and negotiated meaning and sentence structure with the whole class. The class copied down the story as their reading material (see Appendix 15 -- "The Best of F.1D", p.4) and the class had a dictation lesson on this story in the following week.

The Royal Visit (1 1/2 periods)

After the visit of Prince Charles and Princess Diana to Hong Kong, I showed the class some colourful pictures from the newspaper to help them recap what they had seen on television about the Royal visit. Students were invited to talk about what they knew about the visit and I put down the sentences supplied by them on the blackboard. Negotiation of meaning and teacher support went on throughout the process. The students copied down the finished work (see Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D", p.5) and there was a dictation on the story the week after.

A Robbery (1 period)

A robbery occurred leading to one death and 3 injuries. I brought in a newspaper to the class the next day, showing them pictures of the jewellery shop and the route of the robbers' escape. Most students knew about the robbery from the news report and were able to describe a few details about the incident. Again the story was written on the board and students copied it down to their note-books (see Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D(2)", p.5).

(c) Language Experience Stories Related to Special Occasions

Chinese New Year (1 period)

It was the first day of school after the Chinese New Year holiday. The lesson was started with a casual chat with students. Students talked about different things they did. This soon developed into the pattern of class experience storytelling, with me writing down what they said on the blackboard and providing help in translating words from Chinese to English. (See finished work in Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D (2)", p.4.)

Cold Days (1/4 period)

There were 10 minutes left after a test, I suggested students talk about the cold they felt in those two days. In fact, the temperature dropped severely on the day before, and a girl suggested then that the class could write a class experience story about the cold. As I had planned to do something else in that lesson, I postponed it till the day after. Within the 10 minutes we had, students suggested ideas and also tried to improve the sentence structures of the sentences dictated on the blackboard verbatim. They also made suggestions to the

sequence of sentence development. (See finished work in Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D (2)", p.5.)

The School Fun Fair (1 1/2 periods)

This was the lesson after the Annual School Fun Fair. I started the lesson by asking students to reflect upon what they did or saw during the fun fair. Each of them was then invited to write down at least one word related to the fun fair on the blackboard. After this, students were encouraged to make a sentence using the word(s) they had supplied. As these sentences were written on the blackboard, students helped to improve one another's sentences to make the meaning clear (see Appendix 19).

A Special Day (1/4 period)

There were ten minutes left in that lesson. I suggested using the time to talk about anything special in those few days. There was a big procession to commemorate the June 4th Incident just the day before so we started a class experience story session on this topic. The sentences suggested by the students were written on the board and students copied the finished work into their notebook. (See finished work in Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D (2)", p.5.)

(d) Language Experience Stories with Experience Provided by Teacher

Building a Figure with Some Coloured Rods (1 period)

Students were given some coloured rods to play with. At first, I gave instructions for them to build a figure using the rods. Then students were given a chance to build a figure with the rods on their own, after which they wrote down the instructions for building such a figure. Consolidation work on the use of prepositions and the description of the position of the rods in relation to one another was done as follow-up work. Students' instructions were not printed out as reading materials, but one of the group's work was put in "The Best of F.1D" (Appendix 15), p.8.

Story Retelling (1 period)

I intended to use this lesson to present the use of present perfect tense to the students. I chose to tell the students the story "Goldilocks" as this story contained questions such as "Who has sat on my chair?", and "Who has eaten my porridge all up?" After telling the story, I elicited a few key words from the students, put them on the blackboard and asked students to retell the story in turn. Then I focussed their attention on the use of the present tense.

VI.4.3.5.2 Directed Writing

As discussed in Section V.2.2.2, directed writing method can provide students whose first language is not English with guided help in writing before students can do their own free writing. Following the teaching plan for F.1 English, students had to write compositions. Directed writing was the approach adopted for these individual compositions. Directed writing was often conducted as a

follow-up activity to a series of lessons on a theme, a class experience story session or a presentation of certain language point. In other words, students were always exposed to the key vocabulary and the language structures needed before they attempted their writing, and they also had a considerable degree of flexibility in expressing any personal elements if they wished to.

The topics of directed writing are listed below:

Date	Title	Function
12.9.89	My New School	Follow-up activity to class experience story session
12.10.89	A Description of My Family Members	Follow-up activity to topic in textbook
8.11.89	My Day	Follow-up activity to topic in textbook
27.11.89	The Joint Athletics Meeting of True Light Schools	Follow-up activity to topic in textbook and school function
21.2.90	An Accident	Follow-up activity to topic in textbook and class experience story session
27.3.90	A Telephone Conversation	Follow-up activity to presentation of language structures for telephone conversation
30.4.90	A Letter of Advice	Follow-up activity to topic in textbook and class experience story session
17.5.90	The School Fun Fair	Follow-up activity to class experience story session and school function

As far as the marking of students' written work is concerned, it has already been discussed that the typical LEA way of not changing anything written by the students is not applicable to the

Hong Kong context. Moreover, the experience in the pilot study had shown that focussing the marking of students' work on only certain grammatical structures each time was not practical. A different way was therefore adopted to mark students' compositions. Basically, I underlined mistakes which students should be able to correct for themselves and corrected those that were more complicated. For different students, I picked out their specific mistakes in the use of words, expressions, or structures and asked them to make meaningful sentences with them. When the students received their composition books, they were to correct only the mistakes underlined and then do the sentence-making exercise assigned to them on an individual basis. The composition was given a grade each time for the school needed this for calculating the English term mark for the students.

When students finished their correction and sentence making, they came to me for a short individual conferencing time to discuss their work. After this, they chose a piece of coloured paper each, copied their work onto it and drew pictures to decorate their own writing. The decorated pieces of work were either displayed on the board or put in students' personal folders. The folders were kept in a magazine rack placed in the classroom. Students were encouraged to read one anothers' work in their free time. Such practice of encouraging students to illustrate their writing and displaying the finished products was an attempt to incorporate some elements of creative writing in the guided writing activities. The artwork was a chance for students to express their ideas through another means, whereas the display provided a sense of purpose and readership for the writing. (See Appendix 20 for examples of students' work.)

VI.4.3.5.3 Creative Writing

In creative writing, students were allowed a free choice of ideas and ways of presentation. This was done once as collaborative

group work for a play competition. After teaching the materials prepared for the whole secondary 1 level on the topic of "Birthday Party", Miss Lee, the English teacher of Group A and I decided to hold a play competition for the class. All together, 8 periods were spent on this. We each divided our own group into three sub-groups. The grouping was done by mixing students of different abilities as well as temperaments together. Each sub-group was to produce a script on the topic "Birthday Party". They were given three periods to discuss and to write the script, during which I walked around the sub-groups and gave assistance whenever required. After the scripts were proofread and edited with my help, three other periods were spent on rehearsing the plays. Students prepared costumes and props all on their own and finally the play competition was held in the school hall in the last two periods. Miss Lee and I were the adjudicators of the competition. Three prizes were given to the plays with the best scripts (see Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D(2), pp.7-16) and performance.

VI.4.3.5.4 Inquiry

An activity in the form of inquiry was conducted in the middle of the first term. It was a small scale project for the class to interview some upper form students. The thinking behind it was that the F.1 students had become more familiar with the school at that stage, and it was time they explored more about the school and people around them by talking to some upper form students. All together, 6 periods were spent on this activity. To prepare students for the interview, students listened to a taped interview and did some listening comprehension exercises in the first lesson. In the second lesson, they were asked to suggest questions that they would like to put forward to the upper form students. The questions were copied down by the teacher and printed out (Appendix 21). Then students practised interviewing in pairs. They formed groups of 3 to 4 members each and arrangements were made with a F.6 class so that the F.1 students could interview them in small groups

in an English lesson. During the interview, the F.1 and the F.6 students sat in the pre-arranged groupings and the teacher walked around to provide help whenever necessary. After the interview, I discussed with the students the way of writing a report of the interview. The interview notes of one group was used, the class suggested ways of arranging the notes into sentences and paragraphs, and I put their suggestions on the blackboard. Each group was then asked to hand in an interview report as their assignment. One of the reports was printed in "The Best of F.1D", p. 6-7 (Appendix 15).

VI.4.3.5.5 Key Vocabulary

Key vocabulary activities were sometimes used to help students with their experience story or guided writing activities depending on the relevance and the time available. For instance, in the word association activity on the first day of school, in the story retelling activity of "Goldilocks", and in the experience story activity on "The School Fun Fair", key vocabulary method was adoped. Students were asked to think of associated words or key words to help them focus on thinking as well as to let them do something more manageable before they attempted the next stage of work.

The idea of keeping a word bank for the key vocabulary learnt was also introduced on the first day of school. Students were encouraged to keep an exercise book as their word bank. The following is the page format suggested by the teacher to the students for recording words in their word bank books:

Date	Word	Meaning	Knowledge (✓ or X)	Checked by

Students could enter words that were of personal significance or words that they wanted to learn into the word column together with the date of word entry and the meaning of the word. These words could come from any sources -- e.g. textbooks, lessons or individual conferences with the teacher. Classmates were asked to check one another's knowledge of the meaning and spelling of the words in their word banks from time to time. They would put a `√' sign in the Knowledge column if their fellow classmate knew the spelling and the meaning of the word; if not, they would enter an `X' in the column. Checkers were also required to sign their own names in the last column of the page. During individual conferences with the teacher, students were also expected to show the teacher their word banks and to be prepared for teacher's checking their knowledge of the words in it.

VI.4.3.6 2L-LEA Activities Outside the Classroom

VI.4.3.6.1 Individual / Pair Conferences

More systematic planning was made for 2L-LEA activities outside the classroom. This referred to individual/pair conferences held during my free time (i.e. before school, after school, lunch time or free periods). I worked out in the beginnng of term that if 25 minutes were spent for each conference, I could afford time to meet each student twice in one term. The actual conferencing started in mid-September 1989 when students were more adjusted to the life of the school. In the whole school year, 4 rounds of conferencing were done. I worked out the free time slots I had and arranged to meet students in the order of their roll call list. The conferences were often held outside the staff room along the corridor. A quiet and convenient place for conferencing during non-lesson time was always difficult to find.

The individual conference was a time for the student to tell

the teacher an individual experience story. This was usually done by the student telling me a topic of interest or a special experience orally while I wrote it down into the student's composition book or note-book verbatim. Support and negotiation of meaning were provided if the student hesitated or switched language codes. After telling the story, the student read over the recorded version of the story and worked together under my guidance to improve the story by making changes and corrections wherever necessary. Some of these individual experience stories were later included in the class publications and became the reading material for other students.

I also made use of the conference time to look at the word banks of the students to see what sorts of words were entered. I also liked to pick a few words from the word bank at random to check students' knowledge of them and to show them that they needed to be responsible for the words they put in.

In the first and fourth round of the conference, an interview was held between the teacher and the student. The interviews were to collect additional information to supplement and validate the information from the pre and the poststudy questionnaires. In the third round, students were asked to choose their own partner and come for a pair conference. This was conducted for a change so that students were given a chance to learn to produce an experience story collaboratively with a partner and to learn from one another. Another reason was to find out whether pair conference was a viable alternative for teachers teaching an ordinary-sized class with 40 students and could not afford time for individual conferences. This proved to work well for both the teacher and the students.

VI.4.3.6.2 Publishing Students' Writings

At the end of both the first and second term, students' writings (including individual, pair, group and class experience

stories) were collected and published in the form of booklets, one for each term. Students discussed the name of their publication and finally agreed that it should be called "the Best of F.1D". Members of the editorial committee were elected by the students. Students preferred a neat and more standardized presentation of their work rather than to let the writers of the experience stories design the presentation of their own piece of work. Therefore, typists and artists were also chosen from the class. I guided the editorial committee to do the proof-reading and arrangement of contents. The final printing was done outside school and each member of the class received a copy of the class story book and also presented other copies to the headmistress and the teachers who taught them.

In the second term, I asked if my colleague (Miss Lee) would be interested in making the publication a joint product of the two groups of F.1D. She agreed, but at the end, she thought only two compositions from her group were worth publishing (see "A Birth-day Party" and "$100 Million" in Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D (2)", p.25 and p.27). The editorial work of the second publication was again taken up by my group of students.

VI.4.3.7 Students' Attainment in English

As this was not a quantitative research, no special effort was made to administer standardized tests and collect data for detailed analysis in the planning of the study. Students' performance in ordinary school tests and exams was used for reference only because there were too many uncontrolled variables in the design, administration and marking of these assessment procedures. Nevertheless, students had sat for two English attainment tests in the course of the year. Both tests were set by the Education Department in Hong Kong and they were to provide information to the schools about the students' English attainment standard in comparison to the overall student population in Hong Kong. The

questions of these two tests were designed to indicate students' performance in various language aspects, namely Usage, Reading Comprehension / Problem Solving, Guided Writing and Listening Comprehension. Clear instructions of the procedures for test administration and marking, interpretation of test results as well as norm tables were given in the Teacher's Handbook (Appendix 22). As these tests had been piloted among students of the same year level in Hong Kong and there were clear instructions given to minimize uncontrolled variables, they were used as convenient tools for providing information to this study about students' attainment in different areas of English.

The first test (Test A) was administered in July 1989 (see Appendix 9 for the test paper). The test took 45 minutes and was administered in one session. Students admitted into secondary one of the school were asked to come to the school one morning in July to sit for the test. Students were arranged to sit in different classrooms for the test according to their admission number. Each class was invigilated by one English teacher. The papers were marked by all English teachers in the school at random. The school made use of the test results to screen students into different secondary one classes. The second test (Test B) was administered in May 1990 (see Appendix 23). The school set aside one day for the test. Classes in the same year level were arranged to sit for the test in their own classrooms within the same time block so that there was no recess in between. The test lasted 45 minutes and they were marked by the English teacher of the class. Samples of students' answer paper were submitted to the Education Department for moderation. The results of the students for the two tests are presented in Appendix 24.

VI.4.4 Results

VI.4.4.1 Total Number of 2L-LEA Activities and Periods Conducted

In the academic year of 89/90, there were altogether 24 cycles of school days in the school calendar. F.1 students had 9 periods of English lessons on their timetable for each cycle. The total number of periods for the year was 216. The number of English periods employed for 2L-LEA activities were 55. The time for 2L-LEA activities outside the classroom were not included. The following is a table of all the 2L-LEA activities carried out in the whole school year listed in chronological order.

Table 1 : A Complete List of 2L-LEA Activities throughout the Year

Date	No. of Periods	Activities/ Experience Stories	Activity Type	Ongoing Activities
6.9.89	2	Introducing Neighbours and Free Association	Ice Breaking and Orientation	
8.9.89	1	My New School	Group Experience Story	K
11.9.89	1			
12.9.89	2	My New School	Directed Writing	E
18.9.89			1st Round of Conferencing	Y
19.9.89	1 1/2	Classroom English	Class Experience Story	

21.9.89	1	Building a Figure with Some Coloured Rods	Group Experience Story		V
27.9.89	1	Return students' writings, consultation	Directed Writing individual		O
12.10.89	2	A Description of My Family Members	Directed Writing		C
20.10.89	1	The Earth-quake	Class Experience Story		A
31.10.89	1	Return Students' Writing, individual consultation	Directed Writing		B
7.11.89	1	My Day	Directed Writing		U
7 - 10 11. 89	6	An Inter-view with Upper Form Students	Inquiry		L
13.11.89	1	Discussion on publica-tion of class experience story book	Publication		A
14.11.89				2nd Round of Conferencing	R
15.11.89	1	Return Students' Writing, Individual Consultation	Directed Writing		Y
20.11.89	1/2	The Royal	Class		
28.11.89	1	Visit	Experience Story		

27.11.89	2	The Joint Athletics Meeting of True Light Schools	Directed Writing		
4.1.90	1	Return students' writing, individual consultation	Directed Writing		K
	1	Reading the newly published class experien-ce story books	Publication		E
5.2.90	1	Chinese New Year	Class Experience Story		
13.2.90	2	An Accident	Group Experience Story		Y
20.2.90	1				
21.2.90	1	An Accident	Directed Writing		
23.2.90				3rd Round of Conferencing	
26.2.90	1/4	Cold Days	Class Experience Story		
13.3.90	1	Return Students' Writing, Individual Consultation	Directed Writing		
3.3.90	2	A Birthday Party	Group Creative Writing and Play Competition		
5.3.90	1				
7.3.90	2				
8.3.90	1				
9.3.90	2				
21.3.90	1	A Robbery	Class Experience Story		

27.3.90	1	A Telephone Conversation	Directed Writing		V
24.4.90	1	Return Students' Writing, Individual Consultation	Directed Writing		O
9.4.90	1	Letter of Advice	Group Experience Story		C
26.4.90	1				
30.4.90	2	A Letter of Advice	Directed Writing		
2.5.90				4th Round of Conferencing	A
8.5.90	1	Return Students' Writing, Individual Consultation	Directed Writing		B
2.5.90	1	Story Retelling	Class Experience Story		U
10.5.90	1	Discussion on Publication of class experience story book	Publication		L
9.5.90	1	The School Fun Fair	Class Experience Story		A
16.5.90	1/2				
		The School Fun Fair	Directed Writing		R
25.5.90	1	Return Students' Writing, Individual Consultation	Directed Writing		Y
4.6.90	1/4	A Special Day	Class Experience Story		

From the table above, we can work out the distribution of periods for each type of classroom 2L-LEA activities as follows:

Table 2 : No. of Activities and No. of Periods for Each Activity Type

	Class/Group Experience Story	Directed Writing	Creative Writing	Inquiry	Icebreaking, Orientation, & Publication Matters
No. of Activities	13	8	1	1	4
No. of Periods	17	19	8	6	5

Total no. of activities: 27 Total no. of 2L-LEA periods: 55

Percentage of time spent on 2L-LEA activities for the whole year:

$$\frac{55}{216} \times 100\ \% = 25\ \%$$

As for 2L-LEA activities which took up non-lesson time, e.g. individual/pair conferences, editorial work of publications, it was more difficult to count the exact time spent. The following is an attempt to work out a formula to calcuate the rough amount of time spent on conferencing. An individual conference usually took about 20 minutes, and a pair conference took about 25 minutes. There were 3 rounds of individual conferences and 1 round of pair conferences held in the year. The approximate time spent on this area was:
20 mins. x 22 x 3 + 25 mins. x 11 = 1595 mins. (26.5 hours)
With regard to the editorial work of publications, it was estimated that each issue of publication took about 8 to 10 hours of work. The editorial work for publication of two issues of class experience stories was, therefore, roughly 18 hours. In other words, the non-lesson time spent on 2L-LEA activities was about 45

hours, which was approximately 67.5 periods (one period lasted 40 minutes) and 31% of the total number of English periods per year.

VI.4.4.2 Diary Notes

Diary notes on students' reaction to the various 2L-LEA sessions were taken by me from a teacher-researcher's point of view. "Students' reaction" here refers both to the ways students approached and carried out the 2L-LEA activities and also their verbal and non-verbal feedback during or after the lessons.

As mentioned in Section VI.4.3.2, there was no special framework for recording these diary notes. This was to minimize the bias which might be caused by any preconceived ideas about the approach. With the diary notes collected, the characteristics of the proposed 2L-LEA in Ch.4 are drawn upon to analyse students' responses to the 2L-LEA lessons. In the analysis below, references will be made to the diary notes (Appendix 25).

(a) Approaching the activities at one's level of oral fluency

Amongst the different kinds of classroom 2L-LEA activities, some required students to share their experience and ideas verbally. Most of these activities fell under the categories of "Language Experience Stories on Current News" and "Language Experiene Stories Related to Special Occasions". It was because these story telling sessions were often spontaneous and required little prethinking and preparation work from the students' part, students had to share experiences and ideas about the topics on an ad hoc basis.

The diary notes to these activities showed that students approached the activities differently according to their own temperament and confidence in using English. It was not necessarily those who had better spoken English that spoke

more. As long as the topic was interesting, everyone in the class was ready to contribute or participate in whatever ways they felt comfortable. Usually it was those who had a more outgoing personality that started the stories. As for the types of utterances given, it was those who were more verbal in English that tended to produce sentences, whereas those who were more cautious took more time to think and listened to others attentively before making suggestions. They tended to supply words when others were stuck. Only those who were very shy (only one or two in the group) would not say anything. But they still showed their participation by listening to others, looking at the speech put into words on the blackboard or copying the stories down (see diary notes for class experience story sessions on "Chinese New Year" and "A Robbery").

It was inevitable that the more outspoken girls would tend to dominate the activity to a certain extent. Different ways were tried out to give a more even chance for everyone to contribute to the activities, such as having the girls take turns in supplying ideas or asking them to raise their hands and wait for the teacher to call on them before they talk. Other means, such as visual aids, group competition and group discussion were used as catalysts to stimulate ideas. Students responded well to these variety of methods except for turn taking which made them uptight and nervous (see diary notes of the class experience story session on "Story Retelling" in Appendix 25).

The students' approach to these activities showed that they were able to communicate within the oral language repertoire they had. Students' interest in the topic and the positive classroom atmosphere were the key factors in motivating students to share their experience or knowledge of the topic verbally through however limited the language they had. In other words, these sessions which require verbal

sharing or experiences are best to be conducted after students have had a taste of what 2L-LEA is and have a sense of security in the classroom atmosphere.

(b) Approaching the activities from modes other than speaking

At the initial stage of employing 2L-LEA activities and also for most of the language experience story sessions related to themes or topics in the teaching plan, students were given more chances to think about what they wanted to say by writing down their ideas and experiences first. This was to allow students who were not used to speaking in English to think and organise their ideas before saying them.

In the diary notes, it was shown that having a chance to write down what to say before actually saying it, students could do the speaking part more readily and fluently (see diary notes of class experience story session on "Classroom English" and Group experience story session on "An Accident" in Appendix 25). Students having difficulty in sharing their thoughts in sentences found the task easier if they were asked to focus on key words first (e.g. the Orientation session and the class experience story session on "The School Fun Fair"). In other words, sharing experience through writing down key words is a feasible way to help students think and gradually develop the thinking into sentences containing these key words.

(c) Approaching the activities with "classroom scaffolding" provided

Students often encountered difficulty in telling their experience stories in writing or in speech. These were difficulties related to the lack of ideas or the lack of the necessary vocabulary or expression.

The diary notes showed that students had more difficulty with the lack of ideas at the beginning of the term as they were still new to the approach and not used to sharing their own ideas (see diary notes of the group experience story session on "My New School" in Appendix 25). But this was no longer a problem when students were used to the approach. Classroom scaffolding for ideas was often provided through the teacher's probing and questioning as well as the using of teaching aids such as pictures and newspaper articles.

Language "scaffolding", on the other hand, was often provided through the teacher's hinting, translating Chinese words into English, rephrasing students' expressions and encouraging peer help (see diary notes of the class experience story session on "The Royal Visit" in Appendix 25). As language help and support was provided during the process of negotiation of meaning, it was done naturally and without pressure. Students were not intimidated to ask for the teacher's help (see diary notes of Group experience story session on "Letter of Advice" in Appendix 25) or to negotiate among themselves for the best choice of words or expressions to convey their meaning (see the diary notes of the class experience story session on "The Royal Visit" in Appendix 25).

The diary notes also showed that when students were asked to do some sort of individual directed writing after they had gone through an experience story session, they usually felt more confident with the writing task and were more efficient with the work (see diary notes of the directed writing session on "My New School" in Appendix 25).

(d) Approaching the activities with focus on both communicating meaning and retaining language accuracy.

As discussed in (c) above, most of the 2L-LEA activities

required students to use language to share experience or ideas. The main focus of the activities was on communicating meaning and language was the tool to do so. Although language accuracy was not the focus point, it was not overlooked. The diary notes indicated that students were always aware of the need to convey their meaning with the most appropriate language. In class experience story sessions, meaning and language accuracy were often integrated during the process of negotiation of meaning. For instance in the class experience story session on "The Royal Visit", the students' negotiation of whether to use the word "said" and "praise" in the story was a good example. Another example was found in the diary notes of the class experience story session on "Cold Days". After different students had contributed some sentences to the story, students suggested resequencing the sentences. This illustrates the students' awareness of the need to convey their meaning through a better organization of the language.

In group experience story sessions or individual writing sessions, students were not able to maintain accuracy in language all on their own even though they could seek help from the teacher or from their peers during the process (see diary notes of the group experience story session on "Letter of Advice" in Appendix 25). Students were, therefore, directed to focus on language accuracy usually after completing their tasks. For instance, in the group experience story sessions on "An Accident", after students had produced their group stories, they read one another's work and tried to improve the stories by editing the stories together. It was interesting that when they were asked to vote for the stories they liked best, they all preferred the stories with an interesting content rather than those with fewer grammatical mistakes. This shows that accuracy of language is meaningless if there is little content.

But it was worth pointing out that the focus on language accuracy in a class session should be handled with care as this could sometimes hurt individuals who contributed certain ideas through inaccurate expressions or words. In the class experience story session on "Cold Days", the teacher's invitation of the class to think about improving a sentence was considered humiliating by the girl who contributed the sentence. It was after the teacher's immediate explanation of the purpose of the exercise (see diary notes on the class experience story session on "Cold Days" in Appendix 25) that the girl was pacified and willing to contribute other ideas afterwards. Therefore, the experience shows that it is very important that the students are guided to see the need to maintain a balance of meaning and accuracy in their work and a friendly and supportive learning atmosphere is also essential.

(e) Making use of the first language in the process of experiences / ideas sharing

2L-LEA lessons were basically conducted in English. Students on the whole had no difficulty understanding classroom language and following the lesson procedures in English. It was during the experience story sharing time that students were allowed to use Chinese, their first language, to share ideas that they had difficulty in expressing in English. This was to remove the language barrier which might intimidate their experience sharing.

The diary notes showed that students always tried their best to express themselves in English during class experience story sessions except when they were stuck with certain vocabulary items or special terms (see diary notes for the free association exercise in the orientation session, the group experience story session on "My New School" and the class experience story on "The Royal Visit" in Appendix 25).

It was quite clear to the students that they were learning to talk about things in English so they always tried to use English even though their expressions or language structure might be awkward. It was when they came to special terms or words that they had to revert to their first language and ask the teacher for the translation. The use of first language in these circumstances helped to clarify meanings on the spot without interrupting the flow of English.

The above analysis shows that students' reaction to the various 2L-LEA sessions did reflect the characteristics of the proposed 2L-LEA. Besides these, the diary notes have also captured some of the students' explicit verbal comments or feedback on the approach. These comments can be classified as follows:

(a) Sense of Ownership and Pride

During the second time when the teacher conducted a class experience story session with the class (see diary notes on the "The Earthquake" in Appendix 25), a students showed a sense of ownership and pride when the teacher put her sentence on the board by saying aloud from her seat, "That's my sentence. My name should be put beside it."

There was another incident which showed that students did value the chance of having their work displayed on the notice board and making their writing folders available in a rack placed in the classroom for others to read. At the end of one lesson, students complained of losing some of their written work in their personal folders on display. But when asked whether they still liked to keep the system of displaying their folders for others to read, the answer was positive (see diary notes on the group experience story session on "An Accident" in Appendix 25).

(b) Eagerness to have the language experience story sessions

There were a few occasions when students expressed their eagerness to have more 2L-LEA lessons. The following are a few examples: they responded with a unanimous "Good" when the teacher suggested doing some more of that sort of activities after the class experience story session on "The Earthquake"; the class experience story on "The Royal Visit" won the students' exclamation that they liked the activity; one student commented during the class experience story session on "Chinese New Year" that doing the activity was better than working with the textbooks; and two students told the teacher after the Creative writing session on "A Birthday Party" that they liked English lessons so much that one of them came back to school even when she was unwell.

VI.4.4.3 Questionnaire Responses

As both the prestudy and poststudy questionnaires had been given out to the whole class of F.1D (i.e. both Group A and Group B), the data presented below show results from both groups. Group B was the target group of the study. Although it was not the intention of the study to have a so called "experimental control" group, the responses of Group A were collected to help to shed more light on the the discussion of the findings.

The total number of prestudy questionnaires given out was 43 (21 to Group A and 22 to Group B) and they were all returned. The total number of poststudy questionnaires given out was also 43, and 37 returns were received (15 from Group A and 22 from Group B). In other words, 6 students in Group A did not return copies of the second questionnaire. Raw data of the questionnaires are presented in Appendix 26.

VI.4.4.3.1 Personal Background

In the prestudy questionnaire, some information about the target students' personal background was collected. It was to find out if there was anything special about the background of the students and whether there was anything significantly different from that of the other half of their class.

(a) Academic Background

Question 1 and Question 2 in Section A were to find out if students were F.1 repeaters and if they were from English medium primary schools. The data are presented together in table 3 below.

Table 3 : No. of F.1 Repeaters and Students from English Primary Schools

	F.1 Repeater	English Medium Pri. Sch.
Group A	2	4
Group B	4	1

(b) Parents' Command of English

The figures below were calculated by combining the students' rating of their fathers' (Question 3) and mother's (Question 4) command of English.

Table 4 : No. of Responses to the Different Ratings of Parents' Command of English

	None	Rather Poor	Fair	Quite Good	Excellent
Group A	7 (17%)	3 (7%)	26 (62%)	5 (12%)	1 (2%)
Group B	7 (16%)	8 (18%)	26 (59%)	3 (7%)	0 (0%)

(Percentage in the brackets indicates the percentage in the group)

(c) Parental support

The figures below were calculated by combining the students' rating of their parents frequency of encouragement for their learning of Enlgish (Question 5) and their parents' help with their school work (Question 6).

Table 5 : No. of Responses to Frequency of Parental Support in the Learning of English

	Often	Sometimes	Hardly Ever
Group A	19 (45%)	15 (36%)	8 (19%)
Group B	21 (48%)	15 (34%)	8 (18%)

(Percentage in the brackets indicates the percentage in the group)

(d) Students' Exposure to English

The figures below were calculated by combining the students' rating of the frequency they watched English TV programmes (Question 7) and read English story books (Question 8).

Table 6 : Percentage of Responses to Frequency of Students' Exposure to English in Their Own Time

	Often	Sometimes	Hardly Ever
Group A	1 (2%)	23 (55%)	18 (43%)
Group B	3 (7%)	29 (66%)	12 (27%)

(Percentage in the brackets indicates the percentage in the group)

VI.4.4.3.2 Self-image and Attitude

In both the prestudy and the poststudy questionnaires, there was a section on academic self-image and attitude (Section B in the prestudy questionnaire and Section A in the poststudy questionnaire). The scoring system for this section was the one used in Barker-Lunn's Academic Self-image Scale (Appendix 12a). A score was attached to each answer of an item on the three-point scale (see Appendix 12b). The group's score for each answer on the three point scale was calculated by multiplying the number of responses to the answer with the score designated to the answer. The group's total score for an item was calculated by adding up the group's scores for the three different answers to the item. The mean score for each item was, therefore, calculated by

$$\frac{\text{Sum of the group's total score for each item}}{\text{Total no. of the group population}}$$

(See Appendix 26). Since the number of students involved in the two groups is very small, it was not meaningful to further calculate whether they are in any way statistically significant.

(a) Academic Self-image Related to English Learning

Nine items (Items 10, 11, 15, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, 24) in Section B of the prestudy questionnaire and Section A of the poststudy questionnaire are related to the academic self-image of students. According to the scoring method of Barker-Lunn, the mean score for these nine items should range from 0 (very low academic self-image) to 18 (very high academic self-image). Interpretation of the scores should be made, however, with the understanding that some of these items had been rephrased from the items in the Barker-Lunn scale so that they became more language based (for details, see discussion in Section VI.4.3.1). As the purpose of this study is not to collect data which can be analysed for their significance statistically, but to make use of the various available data

to enrich the overall picture of the effects of 2L-LEA on students, the rephrasing of the questions would, therefore, not be affecting the significance level of the scores as such.

The results of the two groups are presented in Table 7:

Table 7 : Total Mean Scores of Groups A and B's Responses to Academic Self-image Items with respect to the Learning of English

Items	Mean Scores			
	Prestudy		Poststudy	
	Group A	Group B	Group A	Group B
10	1.2	1.2	0.8	1
11	1	1	0.8	1
15	0.9	1	0.4	0.6
17	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.8
18	1.3	1.5	1.2	1.3
19	1.1	1.2	0.7	1.1
21	1.1	1.2	1	1
22	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.9
24	0.9	0.7	0.3	0.7
Total:	9.2	9.3	6.2	8.4

The results show that in the beginning of school year, Group A and Group B were very similar in their levels of academic self-image; but at the end of the school year, both groups dropped in their levels of academic self-image. Comparatively, Group A had a greater drop than Group B did. The possible reasons for this will be discussed in Section VI.5.1.

(b) Academic Self-image with respect to Specific Skills in English Use

Items 12, 13, 20, 23 were specially related to some specific skills in English use. Students were to rate themselves on these scales. The range of total mean score would lie between 0 - 8. The results of the two groups are as follows:

Table 8 : Total Mean Scores of Groups A and B's Academic Self-image with respect to Specific Skills in English Use

Items	Mean Scores			
	Prestudy		Poststudy	
	Group A	Group B	Group A	Group B
12	0.8	1	0.4	0.9
13	1	1.1	1.1	1.1
20	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.8
23	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5
Total:	4.8	5	4.4	5.3

The results show that there is a slight drop of Group A's level of self-image with respect to specific English skills from 4.8 in the prestudy to 4.4 in the poststudy, while there is a slight increase in this for Group B from 5 in the pretest to 5.3 in the posttest. The implications of this will be discussed in Section VI.5.1.

(c) Miscellaneous Items about the Learning of English

Items 14, 16, and 25 were specifically put into the questionnaire to find out about the extent students liked English lessons, the effort they put in and whether they knew the purpose of learning English. Since these items were separate items standing on their own, their scores were not collated to arrive at a total mean score. The results of the two groups are:

Table 9: Total Mean Scores of Groups A and B's Attitude towards the learning of English

Items	Mean Scores			
	Prestudy		Poststudy	
	Group A	Group B	Group A	Group B
14	1	1	1.1	1.4
16	1.2	1.2	1	0.7
25	1.9	2	1.8	1.7

The results show that the two groups were almost identical in their prestudy scores to these three items. However, there was a greater increase in Group B's score to the question on whether they liked English lessons (item 14) from 1 in the prestudy to 1.4 in the poststudy as compared to Group A. Both groups felt that they had put less effort in learning English (item 16) in the posttest but Group B's drop is greater than Group A's. Both groups also showed a slight drop in their posttest scores on the question of whether they knew the purpose of learning English (item 25). The possible reasons behind these inconclusive results will be discussed in Section VI.5.1.

VI.4.4.3.3 Responses to Open-ended questions in Post-study Questionnaire

There were altogether 4 open-ended questions in Section B of the poststudy questionnaire with sub-questions in some of them. Since the last question was mainly for collecting feedback on the school's reading scheme, responses to this question are shown in Appendix 26 together with the raw responses to the other questions, but the data will not be presented below. Out of Group A's 15 questionnaires received, only 13 students completed Section B. All students in Group B (22) completed Section B.

(a) Differences found in English lessons

Question 1 in Section B of the poststudy questionnaire was an open-ended question inviting students to write down any differences they noticed about the English lessons they had in that year and those they had before (i.e. in their primary school). Many students listed more than one difference to this question. Eight categories were developed from the data according to the nature of the differences mentioned so that there could be a more systematic analysis of the responses given by the students. The categories are:

Assessment	(A)
Atmosphere and Affect	(AA)
Classroom Activities	(CA)
Language of Instruction	(LI)
Library Lesson	(LL)
School System	(SS)
Others	(O)
No Difference	(ND)

Students' answers to this open-ended question were in Chinese and they have been translated to English. The following tables list the differences cited by students in Group A and Group B respectively.

Table 10 : Differences found in English Lessons by Students in Group A
(13 Students responded to this question)

Category	Specific Items of Difference Cited
Language of Instruction (LI)	- Most teaching now is done in English. - The teacher speaks in English most of the time. - The teacher teaches all in English. - Most teachers teach in English. - In the past, we could use Chinese in English lessons. The teacher also talked in Chinese a lot. - Compared to my primary school days, I can understand what the teacher says now.
Assessment (A)	- We did not have to recite passages for dictation. - More tests and dictation.
Atmosphere and Affect (AA)	- More serious than before.
School System (SS)	- The class splits during English lessons. I think this is very good.
Classroom Activities (CA)	- Not only are textbooks taught, but we have to do some worksheets.
No difference (ND)	- No difference noticed (4 mentions).

The table shows that the most significant difference found in

English lessons for Group A falls under the language of instruction category.

Table 11 : Differences found in English Lessons by Students in Group B
(21 students responded to this question)

Category	Specific Items of Difference Cited
Atmosphere and Affect (AA)	- More fun (4 mentions) - Kinder teacher (2 mentions) - Lighter atmosphere (2 mentions) - (In primary school), we were often asked to stand up and read something and would be told off if we did not know how to read it. - In the past, lessons were boring, no new ideas. - Lessons are more interesting, less boring. - Yes, less boring than before. - Yes, there is much fun in lessons. - Lessons are fun. - Miss Ma is kind. My previous teachers were not good. - There are many differences. In primary school, English lessons were mainly for textbook teaching, spelling new words, dictation and writing. Now, English lessons are fun. - Easier English. - Some differences. We can ask questions more readily. - But sometimes (lessons are) boring. - But it is boring sometimes.
Classroom Activities (CA)	- But now, we sometimes play games and lessons are not boring. - Yes, there are more activities now than before. - Miss Ma used some jokes in her teaching so lessons are more interesing. - More free time. - Less teaching of textbooks and more teaching of extra-curricular things. - There is a difference because we do not just learn the textbook in English lessons. There is a lot of training in our writing and reading skills which is really helpful.

	- English lessons this year are not just teaching books. We sometimes do some writing together. - We do less homework, but more writing. - Individual conference. - Teaching is done through activities.
School System (SS)	- In primary school, we did not 'float' to other classroom for lessons. - Our oral lesson was taught by a native English teacher. - Less students in the class helps learning. - Floating class.
Library Lesson (LL)	- There is no library lesson before. - Library lesson. - We have to read more library books and write book reports. - We have to read more library books. The books are difficult to understand.
Language of Instruction (LI)	- In primary school, teachers talked in Chinese, but now the English teacher often talks in English, so I sometimes cannot understand her. - Yes. English lessons in the past were conducted in Chinese. - In primary school, the English teacher never used Chinese to help explanation.
Others (O)	- (In primary school), we read library books in the playground. - There were reader lessons before. - (The teacher's) handwriting is difficult to read.
Assessment (A)	- There is an oral examination.
No Difference (ND)	- Not much difference. - No difference.

The table shows that the quite a variety of differences in the English lessons had been noticed by students of Group B, and the majority of the differences cited fall into the Atmosphere and Affect category and the Classsroom Activities category. This shows that students were able to tell the differences that 2L-LEA has made to their learning of English.

The following table is to compare the types of differences mentioned by students of the two groups.

Table 12 : A Comparison of the Types of differences mentioned by students of Group A and Group B

Difference Category	No. of Mentions (%) Group A	Group B
A	2 (13%)	1 (2%)
AA	1 (7%)	20 (43%)
CA	1 (7%)	10 (21%)
LI	6 (40%)	3 (6%)
LL	0 (0%)	4 (9%)
SS	1 (7%)	4 (9%)
O	0 (0%)	3 (6%)
ND	4 (26%)	2 (4%)
Total:	15(100%)	47(100%)

The table shows that students in Group B were able to cite much more differences in the English lessons at the end of the school year as compared to students in Group A. The Atmosphere and Affect (AA) and the Classroom activities (CA) were the categories where most of the differences cited by Group B fall under; whereas differences citied by Group A mainly fall under the Language of Instruction (LI) and the No Difference (ND) categories. The implications of this will be discussed in Section VI.5.1.

As for the sub-question on whether students liked the differences they had mentioned, only those who said they had found some differences in their English lessons needed to answer this question. This was also an open-ended question. A few students qualified their answers by giving reasons (see Appendix 26 c, d). In Group A, 9 students answered this question. In Group B, out of the 20 students who were expected to answer this question (because of what they answered to the question above), 2 gave no response, and 2 answers were considered void because both respondents seemed to think that

they were asked to express whether they liked their English lessons in their primary school. (Their response of like or dislike of the difference did not match the difference cited -- see table 14 below). The responses of the two groups are found in Tables 13 and 14.

Table 13 : Group A's Responses to Whether Students Liked the Differences Cited

Types of Response	No. of responses (Total: 9)	Percentage in the Group (100%)
Yes, very much	0	0%
Yes	2	22%
A little bit	1	11%
So so	2	22%
Not very much	2	22%
No	2	22%
No response	0	0%

Table 14 : Group B's Responses to Whether Students Liked the Differences Cited

Types of Response	No. of responses (Total: 20 - 2 = 18)	Percentage in the Group (100%)
Yes, very much	3	17%
Yes	10	56%
	1 (void)	
A little bit	0	0%
So so	2	11%
Not very much	0	0%
No	1 (void)	
	1	6%
No response	2	11%

Table 13 table shows that the 9 students who responded to this question in Group A had divided views. 3 liked the differences, 4 did not, and 2 had no special opinion. In contrast, Table 14 shows that students in Group B appeared to be more in agreement in their responses. 13 gave a positive answer, 1 gave a negative answer and 2 had no special opinion.

The next sub-question on whether students liked the existing situation of the English lesson was meant for students who

responded with "no" to the very first question asked (i.e. whether they noticed any differences in English lessons that year). But many students who gave positive responses to the first question also answered this question. The answers were therefore considered void, but students' responses could still throw some light on the reasons why they liked or disliked the present English lessons. Such information gives additional information to their responses to the next question. (See Appendix 26 c, d for the kind of responses given.)

(b) Do Students like English Lessons?

The second question in Section B of the poststudy questionnaire was whether students liked English lessons and they were also invited to give their reasons. Not all students gave reasons for their choices. Responses from the two groups are listed below:

Table 15 : Group A's Responses to Whether Students Liked English Lessons
(13 students responded)

Types of Response	Number of Response	Reasons given by Some Respondents
Yes	3 (23%)	- because I can gain a lot of knowledge in English. Very interesting. - Very happy, very easy.
So so	10 (77%)	- Sometimes, the teacher tells us jokes so that we do not feel bored.
No	0 (0%)	

Table 16 : Group B's Responses to Whether Students Liked English Lessons
(22 students responded)

Types of Response	Number of Response	Reasons given by Some Respondents
Yes	9 (41%)	- because lessons are fun and have no pressure on us. - because we can learn a foreign language which is useful to our work in future.
So so	13 (59%)	- Sometimes, English lessons are boring. - Sometimes, when the teacher teaches the textbook, it is not interesting. - Lessons are sometimes boring or interesting. It is better not to teach " " (name of the English textbook). - There is nothing particular for me to like or dislike English lessons. - Lessons are sometimes boring, but sometimes there are games. - We can learn English. - I think English lesson have a lighter atmosphere than other lessons.
No	0 (0%)	

Tables 15 and 16 above show that in general, more students in Group B felt that they liked English lessons and none of the students in both groups expressed that they did not like the lessons.

c. Motivation in Learning English

The third question asked was about whether students found their own motivation to learn English raised in the year. Both groups' responses are listed in Table 17.

Table 17 : Responses to Whether Students' Motivation to Learn English was Raised in the Year

	Yes	Not sure	No
Group A	9 (69%)	4 (31%)	0 (0%)
Group B	12 (54.5%)	7 (32%)	3 (13.4%)

(Percentage in the brackets indicates the percentage in the group.)

The table shows that the majority of the students in both groups thought that their motivation to learn English was raised in the year, but it was interesting to find that students in Group B did not appear to be more motivated than their counterparts in Group A, even though they appreciated the differences they had in their English lessons. The possible reasons for this will be explored in Section VI.5.1.

VI.4.4.4 Interview Responses

Interviews with individual students of the target group were carried out twice in the year, once after the first individual conference in the beginning of the school year and the other after the fourth individual conference at the end of the school year.

VI.4.4.4.1 First Interview

Three questions were asked in the first interview (Appendix 13a). The following tables summarize the findings.

(a) Types of Primary Schools from which students Came

This was a warming up question to ask students something very factual and straight forward. It also tried to find out the number of students who were from the school's feeder primary school which was situated within the same campus of the secondary school.

Table 18 : Types of Primary Schools from which Students Came

Types of School	Chinese Primary School		English Primary School
	Feeder Primary School	Other Primary School	
No. of Students	13	8	1

(b) Difficulties Coping with the Studies in Secondary School

9 students (41% of the group) admitted that they found some difficulties in coping with studies in secondary school. Some gave more than one reasons for the explanation. As for details of the individual responses, please see Appendix 27. The table below is a summary of the reasons given :

Table 19 : Types of Difficulties in Coping with Studies in Secondary School

Reasons	No. of Mentions	(%)
Difficulty with English (e.g. too many words to learn, can't understand the lesson.)	7	(58%)
Adapting to new friends and teachers	2	(17%)
Many books/homework	2	(17%)
Less time for revision	1	(8%)
Total :	12	(100%)

The results shown in the table confirm that English is at the top of the list of the difficulties that students have to cope in their secondary school studies. Among the remaining 13 students who said they had not much difficulties coping with studies in secondary school, 3 of them also pointed out that more English was used in their studies then than before.

(c) Difference Found in English Lessons

The same question was asked in the poststudy questionnaire. The differences cited were classified according to the categories developed for analysing the questionnaire responses (see Table 20). Some students mentioned more than one difference. As for details of the differences, see Appendix 27a.

Table 20 : Differences Found in English Lessons

Difference Category	No. of Mentions	(%)
Assessment (A)	0	(0%)
Atmosphere & Affect (AA)	1	(4%)
Classroom Activities (CA)	4	(16%)
Language of Instruction (LI)	5	(20%)
Library Lesson (LI)	0	(0%)
School System (SS)	4	(16%)
Others (O)	1	(4%)
No Difference (ND)	10	(40%)
Total :	25	(100%)

The table shows that at the beginning of the school year, students were not able to notice too many differences within the English lessons as 10 out of the 25 mentions belonged to the No Difference (ND) category. The category with the second highest number of mentions was Language of Instruction (LI) which is in line with the findings shown in Table 19.

VI.4.4.4.2 Second Interview

Questions in the second interview were asked mainly to gather data about the extent the 2L-LEA activities appealed to students.

(a) Preference Rating of Different Classroom Activities

Among the 9 classroom activities listed, students rated their preference of each activity on a 5 point scale. A priority list of the activities was worked out by adding up the number of positive ratings (i.e. 4 and 5 on the scale) received for each activity. See Table 21 for the priority list.

Table 21 : Priority List of Different Classroom Activities

Classroom Activities	No. of Positive Ratings	(%)
Language Games	19	(86%)
Group/Class Experience Story Telling	15	(68%)
Library Lesson	14	(64%)
Dictation	10	(45%)
Composition Writing	6	(27%)
Grammar Exercise	6	(27)
Listening Comprehension	5	(23%)
Test	2	(9%)
Reading Comprehension (Textbook)	1	(5%)

The table shows that the 2L-LEA activity of group/class experience story telling was the activity that the class liked best second to language games. Not all students elaborated on the reasons for their ratings during the interview. With regard to the experience story telling activity, the reasons for the ratings given are:

. It is easy to compose together. (Rating: 5)
. It is interesting to compose together. (Rating: 5)
. It is not boring. (Rating: 5)
. It would have been better if some girls had not been so dominant. (Rating: 3)
. It is difficult for me to think in a short time. I need to think for a few minutes before I can say something. It is better to be slower. (Rating: 1)

For other verbal responses given by students about the reasons for the ratings of other activities, see Appendix 27b.

(b) Preference Rating of Reading Materials

Students were asked to rate 4 reading materials according to the extent of their preference on a 5 point scale. The priority of their reading materials was worked out by adding up the positive ratings (4 and 5 on the scale) to each choice.

Table 22 : Priority List of Reading Materials

Reading Materials	No. of Positive Ratings	(%)
Library books	9	(41%)
Class/Group Experience Stories	8	(36%)
Your Own Writing	3	(14%)
Textbooks	3	(14%)

The table shows the students liked their own class/group experience stories as much as library books; and that they liked reading these more than reading their own writing and textbooks.

Verbal responses given by some students about the reasons for their ratings of the different reading materials are:

Library Books

. The library books are easy to read. (Rating: 4)
. I don't fancy reading, no matter who write the text. I don't like too many new words. (Rating: 4)
. It takes more time to read (library books) and some are difficult. (Rating: 2)

Class/Group Experience Stories

. It is interesting to learn about what others have written. (Rating: 5)
. They are easier and more interesting. (Rating: 4)
. It is interesting to know what others say. (Rating: 4)

. But I am proud of the book produced. (2 responses with the same rating) (Rating: 3)
. I prefer colourful pictures with big words. (Rating: 1)

Your Own Writings

. I think my writings are not as good as those of the others (Rating: 2)

Textbooks

. But the pictures in the textbooks are better than those drawn by us in the books produced by ourselves. (Rating: 3)

(c) Preference Rating of the Word Bank

Students were asked to rate the extent they like using the word bank on a 5 point scale. The number of responses received for each rating is shown in the table below.

Table 23 : Students' Preference Rating of Word Bank

	Not at all 1	2	No Opinion 3	4	Very much 5
No. of Responses (%)	2 (9%)	6 (27%)	7 (32%)	6 (27%)	1 (5%)

The table shows very varied opinion about the Word Bank. Ther are almost equal numbers in positive responses (7), negativ responses (8) as well as neutral responses (7). The discussio of the extent of success in using Word Bank will be discusse in Section VI.5.1.

The verbal reasons given for the above ratings are:

. The word bank is useful for me to look for words (Rating: 5)

. I remember only words that I have to use often. (Rating: 2)
. I learn the words only when there is individual conference. (Rating: 2)

(d) Preference Rating of Conferencing with the Teacher

Students were asked to rate the extent they liked having conferences with the teacher on a 5 point scale. The number of responses received for each rating is shown in the table below.

Table 24 : Students' Preference Rating to Conferencing with the Teacher

	Not at all 1	2	No Opinion 3	4	Very much 5
No. of Responses (%)	1 (4.5%)	0 (0%)	11 (50%)	9 (41%)	1 (4.5%)

The table shows that the majority of the students either opted for a positive response or a neutral response, showing that this activity is generally accepted and enjoyed by the class. Only one verbal reason for the rating was collected. It was "I don't like to be checked on the word bank." (Rating: 1)

Students were also asked in the sub-question about whether they preferred individual conference or pair conference, and to give reasons for their choice. 15 out of the 22 students preferred pair conference and 7 preferred individual conference. Not every student provided a reason for their choice, but those who preferred pair conference cited reasons such as :

. can discuss with partner
. not so frightened

- not so nervous
- not so boring/more interesting
- better to have a company
- can help each other
- no confidence during self conference, make more mistakes

Those who preferred individual conferences cited reasons such as:

- Teacher can know the student more
- not easy to cooperate (with others)
- less troublesome

(e) Anxiety When Telling Individual Experience Stories

Students were asked if they had any anxiety telling individual experience stories during conferencing. The answers are :

Table 25 : No of Responses to Whether Students Experienced Anxiety in Telling Individual Experience Stories

	Yes	A little	No
No. of responses (%)	3 (14%)	9 (41%)	10 (45%)

The table shows that the majority of the students experienced either no anxiety or a little anxiety in the activity. One student gave an additional verbal response to explain why she experienced anxiety. It was "I am afraid to be asked questions by the teacher."

(f) Opinion about English Lessons and Suggestions.

The last question in the interview was an open-ended question inviting students to give their comments about the English lessons they had for the year and to make suggestions, if they had any. Not every student had something to say. The following is a list of all the verbal response given.

a. I like activities and group stories.
b. I like class experience story time.
c. I like to write compositions together with others.
d. I like to have more library and class experience story lessons.
e. I like library lessons.
f. I like activities.
g. I like more varieties.
h. I like the varieties in lessons. English lessons are good.
j. English lessons are fun.
k. English is better than other subjects.
l. I don't like the present textbook. It is boring. I prefer more colourful books and sessions for individual students.
m. Students should be more disciplined in experience story telling sessions : e.g. take turns to voice their ideas, put their hands up before saying something.
n. Teacher should be stricter with class discipline.
o. I wish there were more exercises and homework.
p. No special comments. (7 students)

VI.4.4.5 Students' English Attainment Performance

As this was not a quantitative research, no special effort was made to administer tests and collect data of test results for analysis. But students had sat for two English attainment tests in the course of the study. The students' results of these two tests were therefore being made use of to provide additional information to the findings of the study.

Tables 26 and 27 show the results of Group A and Group B in the two tests. Results of the two tests were broken down into different sections, namely Usage, Reading Comprehension / Problem Solving, Guided Writing and Listening. The Scores in the brackets under each section heading in the table are the full score for the section. Since Test A was carried out in the summer holiday before the first term started, some students did not turn up for the test. Taking away the number of absentees in both tests, the student number of Group A was 15 and that of Group B was 19.

Table 26 : Mean Scores of Group A and Group B Attained in English Attainment Test A

	Group A		Group B	
	Mean of Raw Scores	Percentile (H.K. Student Population)	Mean of Raw Scores	Percentile (H.K. Student Population)
Usage (13)	7	75.3	6.9	75.3
Reading Compre./ Problem Solving (32)	15.6	72.6	16.4	72.6
Guide Writing (15)	7.2	74.5	6.3	67.9
Listening (15)	11	74.8	11.7	83
Total (75)	40.8	73.5	41.3	73.5

Table 27 : Mean Scores of Group A and Group B Attained in English Attainment Test B

	Group A		Group B	
	Mean	Percentile (H.K. Student Population)	Mean	Percentile (H.K. Student Population)
Usage (13)	7	78	6.7	78
Reading Compre./ Problem Solving (32)	18.2	80.8	18	80.8
Guide Writing (15)	6	69.4	11.6	80.3
Listening (15)	11	77.4	11.6	84
Total (75)	42.2	76.7	44.6	80.1

These two tables show that the performance of Group A and Group B were very similar in Attainment Test A done at the beginning of the school year. Both groups were at the 73.5 percentile of the Hong Kong students population. In Attainment Test B administered towards the end of the school year, both groups improved in their performance, but Group B appeared to make more improvement both in terms of overall results and also with the Guided Writing Section. The implications of these will be discussed in Section IV.5.1.

VI.4.4.6 Other Data

Other Supplementary data included samples of work from students. At the end of term, I asked students to leave me with their composition books and personal folders if they did not mind. So quite a few copies of their individual written work were kept. The two copies of the publication of the class, one in each term were also products of work that could be scrutinized.

With regard to students' individual experience stories told during the individual conference time, their choices of topics became more varied as time went by. The following is a list of their choices of topics. The number in the brackets after some topics indicated the number of students telling experience stories on the same topic. In the first round of the conference, most students chose to talk about either themselves or their families. Other popular topics throughout the year were related to good friends and birthday parties. But it was apparent that the variety of topics increased from 9 in the first round to 19 in the fourth round. Stories on more personal experiences (such as "My Grandmother is Ill", "How I Became Ugly" and "The Difficulties of Being a Class Monitress") rather than standard composition topics (like "The School Picnic", "A Barbecue") were also shared. The following is a list of the topics of experience stories shared in the conferences.

Table 28 : Topics of Experience Stories Shared at Conferences

First Round	Second Round	Third Round (Pair Conference)	Fourth Round
1. The Market	1. My New Pet	1. A Rainy Day	1. Mother's Day
2. My Family (11)	2. Shek O	2. Cherie's Cat	2. Home Coming
3. A School Picnic	3. After the Exam	3. Last Sunday	3. Going to the Library (2)
4. Swimming Competition	4. A 'Cold' Swim	4. An Unsteady weather	4. Preparing for the School Anniversary
5. My Good Friend	5. Revising for the School Exam	5. The Successful F.1 Association Day	5. My Grandmother is Ill
6. My Birthday (2)	6. A Mid-Autumn Festival in My Childhood	6. A Visit to the Space Museum	6. My Birthday Party (3)
7. A Day in Ocean Park	7. My Good Friend (4)	7. Our Happy Day	7. Stella's Birthday Party
8. Myself (4)	8. My School Life	8. The Badminton Match	8. A Visit to the Children's Daily
9. Theft in the Supermarket	9. The Exam is Coming (2)	9. A Play Competition	9. An Unhappy Week
	10. Christmas Day	10. Establishing the F.1 Association	10. Kim is Ill
	11. A Terrible Dream	11. A Rainy Day	11. Learning to Swim

	12. An Unforget-able Day to the Peak		12. Preparing for the School Fun Fair Day
	13. Christmas Party		13. Choosing a Song for the Singing Competition
	14. A Barbecue		14. The Trouble of Tests
	15. The School Picnic		15. How I Became Ugly
	16. My Neighbour		16. An Incident on the Bus
	17. My Mother's Birthday		17. Dragon Boat Festival
			18. The Difficulties of being a Class Monitress.
			19. A Big Mistake

N.B. The no. in the brackets indicate the no. of students sharing stories on the same topic

Comments from other teachers also served as a kind of informal data of the study. These comments were collected not through any formal interview or questionnaire, but through some informal chats along the school corridor or in the staff room.

The teacher who worked most closely with me was Miss Lee, the English teacher of Group A. We often exchanged views about the progress of our students and shared our teaching materials. Basically, she favoured theme based learning supplemented with worksheets (classwork and homework) and she would like students to memorize

paragraphs or dialogues for dictation or oral work. She also had the experience of teaching my group of students. The reason was that the whole class was timetabled to watch the ETV lesson together and we used to take turns in teaching this lesson. She gave me a lot of encouragement and was a very supportive colleague. We co-operated in some joint functions (e.g. interviewing upper form students, holding an inter-group play competition and contributing to the class publication). Through her encounter with my students, she often commented that she found my group more lively, creative and outspoken in English.

As for other teachers, their comments came only when they could see concrete products of students' improvement. Most of them expressed appreciation of the class publications produced. Some asked me if I did the most of the work and corrected most of the mistakes so that the writing appeared quite fluent. This showed that their concern was still very much on correctness of the writing and students' ability rather than students' potential and their willingness to write about various topics which were of meaning and interest to them.

Moreover, one of the 2L-LEA sessions (i.e. the last lesson of the series of lessons on An Interview with Upper From Students) was observed by two student-teachers. Their comments after the lesson wee also quite positive. They felt the students were very involved and that I had a quiet control of the class.

Section D: Discussion

VI.5 Discussion of Results Obtained

As stated in Section VI.1.1.1 above, the purposes of the empirical study were to find out (a) if 2L-LEA could make English lessons more interesting and the learning of English more effective for the specific target group of students; and (b) the practical feasibility of 2L-LEA activities for learning English as a second language among lower secondary students in Hong Kong. In this section, the question of to what extent the purposes were achieved will be discussed with reference to the results obtained.

With regard to the question of whether 2L-LEA made English lessons interesting for the target students, we would try to understand this by exploring whether students enjoyed the lessons. Responses in the 2L-LEA sessions suggested that students did enjoy most of the 2L-LEA sessions. The evidence could be found in students' active involvement in the lessons, their positive verbal responses during or after the lessons and also their responses to questions in the questionnaires and interviews.

As mentioned before, no structured or systematic lesson observation techniques (Allwright, 1988) were employed to obtain quantifiable data about the extent of students' involvement in the lessons. Evidence of students' active involvement could still be noted in the record of the diary notes. As far as class experience story sessions are concerned, although not every student has an equal share in verbalizing their ideas in these sessions, students' attention was clearly focused on the activities. They preferred to choose to participate in the activities in the ways that they felt most comfortable (see Section VI.4.4.2(a)). In fact, the diary notes also show that there was a gradual improvement in the students' readiness to contribute ideas in the class. Students took time to get used to the new approach. In the beginning of the

school term when students did not know the school, the teacher and their fellow classmates well enough, they were more hesitant to contribute in a student-centred lesson. For instance, in the orientation session and in the first group experience story session on "My New School", students were shy, quiet and did not have many ideas to share. But once the atmosphere of tolerance, acceptance, encouragement and support was built up, students were more relaxed and adventurous to talk and act in ways which they might not have done previously or in other lessons. For instance, the class experience story session on "Cold Days" was a student-initiated one. In that particular lesson, there was also a marked change in a student's attitude towards mistake making (see Diary Notes in Appendix 25). The student first felt humiliated when her sentence was corrected, but she picked up the courage to contribute other ideas again at the end of the lesson. Students also showed improvement in taking up more initiative to think or prepare for interesting topics to share with the teacher during their individual conferences (see Section VI.4.4.6).

Students' explicit positive verbal comments to the 2L-LEA activities during or after the sessions as recorded in the diary notes could serve as a good indication of their interest and support for the 2L-LEA activities (see Section VI.4.4.2). It was in fact my predisposition that I would modify the 2L-LEA activities according to the actual interests and the needs of the students in the process of the study. In other words, students' learning would not be sacrificed for the sake of trying out an approach. So if students had not enjoyed or been involved in the 2L-LEA activities, the activities would not have carried on time and again for the whole year long.

Students' responses to questions asked in the questionnaires and interviews were also indicators of students' interest in the 2L-LEA activities. In both the prestudy and the poststudy questionnaires, item 14 of the attitude scale asked whether

students liked their English lessons. There was a rise in the number of Group B's positive responses from 3 in the prestudy to 8 in the poststudy. The number of negative responses was dropped from 2 in the prestudy to 0 in the poststudy. As far as the mean score (ranging from 0 to 2) for this item was concerned, the target group's mean score rose from 1 in the prestudy to 1.4 in the poststudy, while the mean score of their counterparts, Group A, rose from 1 in the prestudy to 1.1 in the poststudy.

In the poststudy questionnaire, there were two other questions related to whether students found the learning of English more interesting in the year. Question 1 in Section B asked students to write down differences they found, if any, between English lessons that year and their previous English lessons. Then students were asked if they liked these differences. Students in Group B were able to write down more differences than students of Group A. The 13 students in Group A who responded to this question mentioned 15 items of differences, whereas the 21 students who responded to this question in Group B mentioned 46 items of differences.

Amongst the answers given by the 21 respondents in Group B, the most popular answers were changes in the area of "Atmosphere and Affect" (20 mentions out of 46). Second on the list was changes in the area of "Classroom Activity" (9 mentions), and these answer referred in particular to fact that more activities and writing were done in the class. In Group A, there were 13 respondents to this question, and the most popular answer was changes in the "Language of Instruction" (6 mentions out of 13), while the second one was "No Difference" (4 mentions). There was, thus, a great difference in the way the two groups of students looked at their English lessons (see Tables 10, 11 and 12 for details).

In fact, when students in Group A were asked a similar question during their first individual interview with the teacher at the beginning of the school year, their answers were very

similar to those given by Group B at the end of the term (see Table 20). The most popular answer given then was "No Difference" (10 mentions out of 25) and the second one was "Language of Instruction" (5 mentions). In other words, both Group A and Group B appear to have had similar views about English lessons in secondary school at the beginning of the school year, but as time went by, Group B seemed to have experienced more changes in their English lessons in the course of a year.

As for whether students liked these changes they had cited, 13 out of the 18 students in Group B who responded to this question gave positive answers, whereas 3 out of the 9 students in Group A who responded to this question gave positive answers (see Tables 13 and 14).

Question 2 in Section B of the poststudy questionnaire asked if students liked English lessons. The result was similar to their answer to item 14 in Section A. 9 out of the 22 respondents in Group B answered "Yes" and no one answered "No". In Group A, 3 out of the 13 respondents asnwered "Yes" and no one answered "No" (see Tables 15 and 16).

Students' interest in 2L-LEA activities in class and off class could also be reflected in students' responses to the questions asked in the second interview carried out towards the end of the school year. In the interview, students were asked to rate the extent they like different kinds of classroom activities. There were all together 9 classroom activities, and the result was that the first two priorities were language games and group/class experience story telling; whereas reading comprehension (i.e. passages in the textbook) was the least preferred classroom activity (see Table 21). This indicates that students preferred activities that were more engaging and that answered their needs and interests, and the 2L-LEA activities do fall into this category. 2L-LEA classroom activities in the form of inquiry and

creative writing were not included in the list because each of these activities was done only once in groups and students would not be able to discern their difference from group experience story telling and other sorts of group work. As for guided writing, it was subsumed under composition writing and it was 5th on the priority list.

Students also rated the extent of their preference of 4 different reading materials, the priority list worked out from their responses was library books, class/group experience stories, one's own writing, and textbooks, in descending order (see Table 22). The answers show that students on the whole thought that textbooks were less attractive to read and they preferred to read library books or materials developed by themselves. The word bank proved to be moderately well-received as one third of the students said they liked to use it, another one third had no opinion and the remaining one third did not like to use it (see Table 23).

As for the question asking if students liked conferencing with the teacher, only 1 student gave a negative response. Among the rest of the students, half of them gave a positive response while the other half expressed no special like or dislike (categorized as "no opinion")(see Table 24). This can be explained by the fact that some students were not used to the teacher's individualized teaching and they experienced slight anxiety during the conference (see Table 26). When asked whether they liked individual conference or pair conference, 7 students preferred the former while 15 preferred the latter and the reason was mainly that they were more confident when they had a partner with them (see pages 294-295 for the reasons). Nevertheless, about half of the class (10 students) also said that they had no anxiety in telling their individual experience stories during the conferencing time (see Table 25).

The last question asked in the second interview was an open-ended question asking students to comment on or make suggestions to

the English lessons. Among the 15 students who did have something to say for this question, 11 of them expressed that they liked various aspects about the English lessons, and 4 of them pointed out specifically that it was the group/class experience story time that they liked most.

The above quoted findings from different sources (i.e. teacher's own observation in lessons, student's verbal feedback to the teacher in lessons or in interviews and students's written feedback in questionnaires) show that 2L-LEA activities did make English lessons more interesting to the target group of students in this study. Students realized the differences (in terms of "Atmosphere and Affect" and "Classroom Activities") they had in their English lessons of the year and their general response to the different sorts of 2L-LEA activities was positive. Being accustomed to the conventional teacher-centred approach in the classroom, the majority tended to feel more secure and relaxed when they were sharing stories and ideas in class, in groups or in pairs. Nevertheless, about half of the class had no feeling of anxiety when they had individual conference with the teacher. The experience stories produced by the class members were also something students liked to read and also a source of their pride. The keeping of a word bank was comparatively less appealing than other 2L-LEA activities as students were afraid to be checked upon their knowledge of the words during the conference. Perhaps this element of assessment was also what made some students nervous during the individual conference.

Having established that 2L-LEA could make English lessons more interesting to students, we would now look at whether it could make the learning of English effective as well. The word "effective" was used here to mean whether students were more motivated to learn English, whether their academic self-image was in any way improved, whether they showed any significant improvement in their learning of English and whether their needs as first year secondary school

students were in any ways met. Data from students' questionnaire responses and results of English Attainment Tests would be used for the analysis of this question.

In Section B of the poststudy questionnaire, the third question asked students directly if they found themselves more motivated to learn English during the year. 12 of the 22 students in Group B answered "Yes" while 9 of the 13 students in Group A answered "Yes" (see Table 17). The result was quite surprising. Group A's responses to Questions 1 and 2 in the same section suggested that apart from the difference in the language of instruction during English lessons, they did not experience too many changes in the ways of learning English throughout the year and that 10 out of 13 of them did not particularly like or dislike English lessons (see Table 15); yet their motivation to learn English was comparable to those in Group B, which experienced many more positive changes in the way they learned English in the year and that nearly half of the group said they liked English lessons. This suggested that students' view of their motivation to learn English might not be simply a matter of whether lessons were interesting. Other factors would also affect the result.

One of the factors which is always related to motivation is purpose, i.e. whether students knew why they had to learn English no matter it is for instrumental or integrative purposes (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). In fact both of the groups showed in their responses to item 25 of the self-image scale in both the prestudy and the poststudy questionnaires that they knew very well why they learned English. The mean scores for both groups were almost 2 and they did not change much in the year (see Table 9). This probably helps to explain why students in both groups were, on the whole, motivated to learn English. Nevertheless, a possible factor which makes some students in Group B unsure about whether they were motivated to learn English was their association of `learning' with study and hard work. As Group B's students found themselves much

more relaxed and having a lot of fun in English lessons, the way they rated thier own motivation to `learn' English was not as high as their counterparts. This view was also quite strongly expressed in the pilot study by the M.2 students, who found themselves less hardworking and not making much effort to learn English (see Appendix 8). A supporting piece of evidence for such a conclusion could also be found in students' responses to item 16 of the self-image scale in the questionnaire. None of the students in Group B found themselves always hardworking in English at the end of the school year, whereas 5 of them thought they did always work hard in English at the beginning of the school year. For Group B, there was a drop of the mean score for this item from 1.2 in the prestudy questionnaire to 0.7 in the poststudy questionnaire. There was also a drop in Group A's means score of this item from 1.2 to 1, but the drop was comparatively much smaller (see Table 9).

In the Questionnaire section on self-image scale, there were nine items relating specifically to academic self-image with respect to the learning of English. According to the scoring method of Barker-Lunn, the mean score for the nine items ranges from 0 (very low academic self-image) to 18 (very high academic self-image). The mean scores gained by Group A and Group B for this section in the prestudy questionnaire were 9.2 and 9.3 respectively, implying that students in both groups had a moderate view of their own academic self-image. But towards the end of the school year, the academic self-image of both groups dropped. The mean score for Group A was 6.2 and that for Group B was 8.4 (see Table 7).

It might be expected that the F.1 students, in general, tend to have a drop in their academic self-image because of the various academic, social and psychological adjustments they have to make as they become secondary students. Since we did not have data about the academic self-image of students in the other F.1 classes, the above conclusion was drawn on the ground of common sense and the

teacher-researcher's teaching experience. Looking at the separate items constituting the academic self-image scale, we can find that the items for which there was a drop in the mean scores for both groups in this study was item 15 ("When we have English tests, I get good marks") the mean scores of Group A and Group B for the prestudy questionnaire were 0.9 and 1 respectively, and they dropped to 0.4 and 0.6 for the poststudy questionnaire. This suggests that assessment was a reason making students feel themselves inadequate. This was particularly true for this class of students as they were the remedial class, their academic performance was on the whole below average when compared to the other classes in the same level. At the beginning of the school year, they might not have realized their difference from others. But as they had to sit for the same general tests and examinations with the other F.1 classes in the course of the year, it was quite evident that they always got low marks.

Comparatively, the drop in the academic self-image mean score was more significant for Group A than for Group B. There was a drop of 20% to 30 % (i.e. a difference of 0.4 to 0.6 in scores) in Group A's means scores for the following items: item 10 ("I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment."), item 17 ("I am quite satisfied with my school work in general"), item 19 ("My English teacher thinks I am poor in English"), and item 24 ("I am good at English"). As for Group B, apart from the drop of 10% (i.e. 0.2 in score) for item 10, there was only a 5% drop in the mean score for both items 17 and 19, and there was no change in the mean score for item 24. (See Table 7 for details.)

Barker-Lunn's (1970; cited in Cohen 1976) use of the academic self-image scale showed that children of average and below average ability develop poorer academic self-images when taught in classrooms which were more `traditional' in their organization and where the teachers were `less permissive' and `less tolerant' of the slower child. Perhaps this finding could explain the difference

in academic self-images between Group A and Group B at the end of the school year. Group B's responses to the open-ended questions in the poststudy questionnaire and the interviews (as discussed earlier) did indicate that they felt the English classroom more relaxed and the teacher more tolerant and this was indeed the basic principle of 2L-LEA.

As for students' academic self-image with respect to specific skills in English use, it was found that there was not much difference in the mean scores of both Group A (4.8) and Group B (5) for the prestudy questionnaire. The difference between the two groups was slightly greater for the poststudy questionnaire, as the mean score of Group A dropped to 4.4 and that for Group B increased to 5.3 (see Table 8 for details). Although the findings were not strong enough to prove that 2L-LEA had raised students' self-image with respect to specific skills in English use, we could at least conclude that when the target students were asked to consider what they could actually do in English in concrete terms, they did not have a poorer self-image of themselves as compared to their rating of their academic self-image in more general terms.

As far as the actual performance of students in English is concerned, the results of students' English Attainment Tests indicated that contrary to findings about students' academic self-image with respect to English, there was some improvement in their attainment in English over the year. The total mean score of Group A was 40.8 (Percentile: 73.5) and that of Group B was 41.3 (Percentile: 73.5) for Test A. For Test B, there was a slight improvement of Group A's total mean score to 42.2 (Percentile: 76.7) and Group B's total mean score to 44.6 (Percentile 80.1). Among the different language aspects, both groups had shown similar improvement in the area of Reading Comprehension / Problem Solving. The mean score Percentiles of both of the groups for the two tests were the same. It increased from 72.6 for Test A to 80.8 for Test B. Group B, however, had also shown particular improvement in the

area of Guided Writing from a mean score of 6.3 (Percentile: 67.9) for Test A to a mean score of 8 (Percentile: 80.3) for Test B. (For details, see Tables 26 and 27.)

In other words, there was no marked difference in the English attainment of the two groups over the year as far as the Attainment Tests results are concerned. But it is quite apparent that the tests do not elicit the skills which are particularly developed by 2L-LEA, such as speaking skills. The tests results show that both groups had improved over the year especially in the area of Readig Comprehension / Problem Solving. In addition, Group B had also shown much improvement in the area of Guided Writing. With 2L-LEA being introduced to Group B, there was a significant increase in the opportunities for students to write, for all the activities were related to some sort of writing (e.g. class/group/individual experience stories, directed writing, inquiry, and creative writing).

The above discussion has shown that students of the two groups were on the whole quite clear about why they learned English and they felt that their motivation to learn English had generally been raised over the year. Nevertheless, students in Group B tended to find themselves working less hard than students in Group A because 2L-LEA had made the classroom atmosphere more relaxed and there was less 'serious' work for students to do. Both group's academic self-images dropped, but Group A's drop was greater, which might be a result of the difference in the classroom atmosphere and the value reflected by the teachers' way of teaching. As far as students' self-image with respect to specific skills in English use was concerned, there was no large difference in the prestudy and poststudy scores for the two groups. The two English Attainment Test Results indicated that students in both groups had actually improved in their English attainment over the year, but Group B improved more in the area of Guided Writing perhaps because of the nature of 2L-LEA activities. It is a pity that the English

Attainment Tests did not include an oral section. Since in experience story telling activities, students had to verbalize their thinking before this thinking was recorded in the written form, it would be interesting to see if the students' oral skills had improved.

An analysis of the data above has shown that on the micro-level, 2L-LEA did contribute towards making English lessons more interesting to the students from the points of view of both the students and the teacher directly involved in this study. Class/Group experience story telling, the most typical and predominant 2L-LEA activity throughout the period of study, was welcomed by the students and they also enjoyed the relaxed and tolerant atmosphere of the classroom. Data also showed that students who had gone through 2L-LEA activities had their self-image with respect to specific things that they could do in English improved, such as oral reading, understanding teacher talk in English, and writing a short story about themselves. Their attainment in writing was also significantly improved. In short, the first purpose of the study was positively achieved as 2L-LEA was found to make English lessons more interesting and the learning of English more effective in certain aspects for the specific target group of students.

The second purpose of this study was to explore the practical feasibility of 2L-LEA for learning Engish as a second language among lower secondary students in Hong Kong. I would attempt to analyse this question from the teacher's point of view based on the teaching experience of the period of study. As the study was conducted as an action research project with the least alteration of school routine and practices, it was hoped that the findings could present a more realistic reflection of the feasibility of the approach in coping with the school context.

First of all, the findings in this study have added validity

to the argument raised in Chapter One that the change in the language of instruction is one of the biggest problems experienced by many F.1 students. In the first interview, students were asked if they experienced any difficulties in coping with studies in secondary school. Although only 9 students (41%) admitted that they had certain difficulties, difficulties with learning in English was top on the list (7 students mentioned this, see Table 19). Three students from the remaining 13 students who said they had no difficulties in coping with their learning did add that they found more English used in their studies. The reason that about half of the class did not find any difficulties in their studies might be explained by two reasons. Firstly, when the question was asked, it was still at the very early stage of students' secondary school life so that the pressure from studies was not great. Secondly, 13 of the students were from the feeder primary school. It was possible that psychologically speaking, the familiar learning environment provided them a sense of security and helped them cope with the changes much better.

The above findings supported the need to renew the English curriculum to help students with the learning. The action research of supplementing the F.1 English curriculum with 2L-LEA activities in the academic year 1989-90 has shown that 2L-LEA activities could be integrated into 25 % of the lesson time. It was quite apparent from Table 2 in Section VI.3.2.4.1 that class/group experience story and directed writing were comparatively more frequently held than other 2L-LEA acitivities. This suggests that the most convenient and practicable ways to supplement the existing curriculum with 2L-LEA activities were (a) to conduct experience story telling sessions on themes/topics related to the themes of textbook topics in the teaching plan; and (b) to use directed writing method for compositions. By doing so, not much of the existing content in the teaching plan had to be condensed or removed to make way for 2L-LEA activities.

Spontaneous experience story sessions, on the other hand, were interesting and relevant to the immediate experience of students. Students responded well to these sessions and they would even take the initiative to suggest topics for experience story telling gradually. But for these stories, apart from asking students to improve on the stories or study them for dictation, not much systematic follow-up work was done. For one reason, the teacher could not divert her teaching too much from the core content stated in the teaching plan. The other reason was that if follow-up activities were to be carried out imminently, the teacher had to work out what to teach and produce suitable exercises within a short time. This was demanding to a teacher who still had other classes to teach as well as many extra-curricular duties. Thus the experience implies that spontaneous experience story sharing activities can add flavour to the ongoing lessons and make writing a communal activity with relevance to learners' experience and concern. They are feasible intermittent activities for schools which have to follow a core content. Follow-up activities to these sessions should be left flexible depending on the relevance and the teacher's own judgement of the suitability of conducting follow-up activities.

The new approach in correcting students' individual written work also proved to work well. Different students could focus on structures, vocabulary or language points that they needed to pay special attention to. The decoration of their compositions on coloured paper also gave students a sense of purpose for correction -- to keep a record of their own pieces of writing in their best form and to let others read their work (either displayed on the board or put in their personal folders in the rack) with greater interest. The incident of students' nominating someone to look after the matter of displaying/keeping students' written work in the classroom was an indication of their concern for their produced work. As the target students in this study were a remedial group of 22 students, this definitely made it more manageable for the

teacher to hold short individual conferences with students during the composition correction period. With an ordinary class of 40 students, my suggestion is that the teacher should set aside half of the composition correction period to meet those whom she would like to talk to, and leave the rest of the time for students who want to see her on their own accord.

Other forms of classroom 2L-LEA activities, such as inquiry and creative writing were not often done throughout the year of the study. The major reason was that they took up more time and it was thus not feasible to conduct them too often. The experience has shown that with a suitable choice of topic and a clear sense of purpose, students would respond positively to these activities.

As for key vocabulary approach, it proved to be an effective means to help students focus their ideas before they started experience sharing or writing. The word bank, nevertheless, worked well only with students who had greater initiative to learn, but not for those who could not care less. (See Appendix 27 for students' verbal comments on word bank.) Moreover, I did not fully make use of their word bank as suggested in some LEA literature, such as asking students to make sentences or play games with the words in their word bank. The reason was also the insufficient time available within lesson time to do such "extra" activities. What I did was simply to remind students to put words into it, check one another's knowledge of the meaning and spelling of the words, or have these checked by myself during the individual conference. Thus insufficient motivation was given to the use of the word bank. In short, within the present curriculum framework, key vocabulary is a feasible approach to be incorporated into guided writing or creative writing activities whereas the use of the word bank should probably be kept to a low profile.

As for 2L-LEA activities outside the classroom, I found the individual conferences very rewarding for I really felt students

progress in their writing, especially in the richness of the content (see Table 28 for the topics of the individual experience stories). It was quite evident that in the first round of individual conference, students were more hesitant in their choice of topics. In fact, many of them came to me saying that they had nothing to write about and I had to make suggestions of topics to them. More than half of them stuck to less risk taking topics like 'My Family' (11 girls) and 'Myself' (4 girls). Only 7 girls chose to write about special experiences that they had in their daily lives. But in the second term, students felt more relaxed to talk about interesting or personal things they experienced for they knew that I was there to help them express themselves. Some were very well prepared for these conferences. For instance, two girls who visited the Space Museum in their holiday came back with notes of special terms and vocabulary related to the names of various facilities in the museum and the films they saw there. In the fourth round of the conferences, there were altogether 19 different topics of experience stories and many of them were personal and not just typical composition topics prescribed by the teacher.

As far as grammar was concerned, I found students capable of correcting most of their mistakes, but they needed someone to remind them or give them hints. If they were left to do the work on their own, they would do it in a mess. This shows that learners in general know many language rules in their head, but they cannot be always 100% conscious of what rules to apply at what time for this is not a natural way of language production. Thus when they are not capable of using the language independently, some sort of "scaffolding" (Wells, 1986) provided by the teacher is very crucial to give them support and encouragement to explore with the language. As the individual conference provided a chance for more personal and individual attention to the students, this helped to give confidence to the students to take risks to stretch themselves further in their writing. Besides, the teacher and student relationship also improved a great deal. But as an outside

classroom activity, the individual conference took time and was sometimes quite tiring for the teacher. Even so, I think it is still worthwhile. For a large class of 40 students, I think it is more praticable to hold pair or group conferences instead of individual conferences. Students' reponses to the interview question on whether they preferred individual or pair conference showed that 68% of the class preferred the latter. Nevertheless, if a teacher has to teach English to more than one class, it is absolutely not feasible to hold conferences for students of all the classes outside lesson time. In this case, I would suggest doing this with the youngest class of students as they are the learners who need more support to build up their confidence, interest and risk-taking qualities in expressing themselves verbally and in writing.

Publishing class story books was a fascinating experience, but it really took a lot of time and patience to guide students to do it. The two issues of "The Best of F.1D" published in the year attempted to include the writing of everyone of the class so that not only the better-performing students could have their work published but also the under-achievers. Students had a great sense of pride in their own experience story books and in presenting them to their teachers.

The above discussion has shown the technical feasibility of employing 2L-LEA activities in an English classroom in Hong Kong. With regard to the feasibility of putting the theory of 2L-LEA into general practice in a second language classroom of English, my experience was that sometimes quite a lot of Chinese had to be used especially when students wanted to express certain ideas but did not have the terms/vocabulary in English to do so. To tackle this problem, the teacher can either ask students to talk only about things which are within their language repertoire, or help to translate their ideas into English and explain the language to them. I am a believer in the latter approach, and as reflected from

students' responses, they did not feel tense or nervous in the class/group experience story telling sessions. Even during individual conferences, only 3 of the students (see Table 25) said that they experienced anxiety in these conferences. Thus, unlike first language learners who have not much difficulty with verbalizing their thoughts in their mother tongue, second language learners do need the help from the teacher to help them translate some ideas from their mother tongue to the target language.

Moreover, in principle, 2L-LEA helps students in the development of the four language skills, even though for first language learners a lot of the literature emphasizes LEA's function as a breakthrough to literacy in terms of reading. The present study, however, has demonstrated that in real practice, 2L-LEA in a learning English as a second language context can be a very effective approach to develop writing. In this study, as the second language students shared their experience verbally, the purpose was to have the ideas recorded in written form. Although the recorded story could be used as the reading material of students afterwards, the moment which was most exciting and involved the student(s) most was still the time when they saw the verbal ideas being written down and when negotiation of meaning took place. No wonder, as discussed in the interpretation of the students' English Attainment Tests results above, guided writing was the aspect that the target students had shown marked improvement in.

In short, the characteristics of the proposed 2L-LEA in Chapter Four were evident in the students' way of approaching and responding to 2L-LEA activities. These characteristics are:

(1) 2L-LEA can start from where the learners are, disregarding the level of their oral fluency.
(2) 2L-LEA is flexible enough to allow learners to start from different modes of learning.
(3) 2L-LEA provides classroom "scaffolding" to compensate for the lack of natural input and interaction.

(4) 2L-LEA maintains a balance between communicating meaning and language accuracy.
(5) 2L-LEA makes the individual's previous literacy experience and his first language contributive to the learning process.

Thus, for first language learners, Van Allan's most frequently quoted lines for LEA are:

> "What I can think about, I can talk about.
> What I can say, I can write (or someone can write for me).
> What I can write, I can read.
> I can read what others write for me."

To second language language learners, the saying would be more appropriate if it is changed to:

> "What I can think about, I can talk about.
> What I can say in my mother tongue but not in the target language, someone can help me to express.
> What I can say in the target language, I can write (or someone can help me in the process).
> What I can write, I can read.
> I can read what others write for me."

To conclude, it is technically feasible and theoretically practicable to integrate some 2L-LEA elements into the existing lower secondary English curriculum even if other English teachers of the same level may not be doing the same thing. The best forms of 2L-LEA activities to be incorporated into the existing lower secondary English curriculum in Hong Kong, without using too much of the lesson time for non-teaching-plan related contents are class/group experience story telling based on themes/topics of the core curriculum, and directed writing. If time allows, intermittent experience story telling on current issues or special experiences of the class, inquiry and creative writing could also be carried out. The best thing, of course, is to persuade teachers of the same level to do similar topics on inquiry and creative writing to supplement the core content so that these would not be "extra" activities conducted by an individual teacher. The feasibility of

conducting other non-class 2L-LEA activities like individual conferences and publication, would in the Hong Kong secondary school context, very much depend on the teacher's time available.

VI.5.1 Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations in the study. The first limitation of the study was, paradoxically, the strength of the study as well, that is the combination of research and action. With the teacher being the researcher at the same time, there were the advantages of gaining a natural access to a class, establishing rapport and trust with relative ease and gaining the opportunity to acquire 'subsidiary awareness' and 'tacit knowledge' (Pollard,1985, p.232) which helped to reveal the reality. But one cannot deny the fact that the degree of commitment required to sustain the fully participant role of a teacher was so great that there were the constraints on time for me to be a fully committed researcher at the same time.

The best example of this was in instances where I had to be fully involved in classroom action and thus could not afford to take a more withdrawn role for observation and data collection. The diary notes taken by me as the teacher-researcher were often jotted down hastily after the lesson or some time later in retrospect. They might be rather piecemeal and very unstructured, with some describing students' reaction as observed by me, others recording their verbal comments, and there were also notes about the procedures and my own feelings. Modern technologies like video or cassette recording which could have provided some kind of solution to this problem were not used in this study for the sake of making the classroom situation as natural as possible and to minimize the "Hawthorne Effect" (Borg & Gall, p.214).

Although the diary notes did not look very professional from a researcher's point of view, since the scribbles might not be

legible to others, and I would not rule out possibilities of bias and inaccurate records in them, they served as a useful planner as well as record of teaching for me as a teacher who was trying to record what went on in the lessons as honestly as I could within very limited time. It was hoped that data collected from other sources, such as informal feedback from other teachers, responses to questionnaires and interviews as well as Attainment Test results from both the target and the non-target students, could serve to triangulate the teacher-researcher's own observation and provide a fuller picture from other perspectives of what the situation actually was.

The second limitation of this study lies with the design of the questionnaire. In the poststudy questionnaire, the first question in Section B caused confusion to some students. The question was broken down into three sub-questions. The first sub-question asked students if they found the English lessons they had different from their previous English lessons. If they did, they were asked to write down the differences. The second sub-question asked if they liked the differences they had cited. The third sub-question asked whether they liked the present situation if they had not found any difference between their English lessons then and before. The confusion caused by the series of questions were: (a) two girls answered the first two sub-questions from another angle i.e. they stated how their previous English lessons were different from the ones they had in secondary school and whether they liked the sort of differences in their primary school. (b) Many students did not seem to realize that if they had found some differences for the first sub-question, they did not need to answer the third sub-question. So most of those who provided answer for the first sub-question also answered the third sub-question. Since this series of questions were not asked in the questionnaires for the pilot study, the confusion of the questions for the students was not foreseeable. As a remedy, irrelevant reponses to these questions were discarded (see Section VI.4.4.3.3 (a)).

The third limitation was also related to the questionnaire, and it was the question about nonrespondents. There was no problem with collecting the prestudy and the poststudy questionnaires from the target group. Being the English teacher of the group, I was able to ask students to complete the questionnaires within lesson time and had them returned to me right away. However, Group A did not return all the poststudy questionnaires to me. Only 15 out of the 21 students returned the questionnaires. Apparently, the teacher of Group B was running short of time in her teaching towards the end of term and asked the students to complete the questionnaires in their own time. The result was that there were 6 nonrespondents (i.e. a missing percentage of 28.5).

According to Borg and Gall (1983), if more than 20 percent are missing, it is very likely that the findings for certain questions could have been altered considerably if the nonresponding group had returned the questionnaire and had answered in a markedly different manner than the responding group. This could be most likely if the nonresponding group represents a biased sampling. Borg and Gall (1983) further add that studies which have investigated whether personality and intellectual differences exist between respondents and nonrespondents show that nonrespondents tend to have achieved less academic success than respondents. Basically, as indicated by the school records and the poststudy questionnaire, the students in Group A, and indeed the whole class of F.1D, were quite a homogeneous group as far as family and academic backgrounds were concerned. The large percentage of nonrespondents from Group A should not have affected the findings to a great extent. Moreover, Group A was not a control group in this study though their responses did shed some light on the findings of the study from a different perspective. The missing respondents from Group A, nevertheless, imply that care must be taken in drawing comparisons between responses from the two groups of students.

Another problem arising from the questionnaire data is the

statistical treatment of such small numbers. With the target group in this study being made up of 22 students only, attempts to handle the data collected statistically can sometimes be misleading. Since the major purpose of this action research study was not to verify a hypothesis but to understand more about the effectiveness of the 2L-LEA for the target group as well as the practical feasibility of its implementation to the Hong Kong context, the treatment of data was, therefore, more descriptive than statistical.

The fifth limitation was found in the marking of the English Attainment Test. At the time when students sat for Test A, they were not yet screened into different classes and their papers were marked by different English teachers at random. As students sat for Test B towards the end of the school year, their papers were marked by their own English teacher. This did not pose much problem for test sections with questions which yielded straight forward answers. The section which might have caused inter-marker difference was the Guided Writing section -- Section F of the Guided Writing Section in Test B required the marker to accredit marks to each of the students' sentences by judging the content and the language correctness. The problem was not realized at the study period because the tests had been administered for some years in the school and the familiarity with the practice led to a failure to realize the significance of such an arrangement to the interpretation of the findings. However, as the criteria for Section F were quite clearly stated (see p.32 of Appendix 22), it was hoped that the inter-marker difference could have been minimized because of this.

Lastly, there was also a possiblity of students failing to reveal their true feeling when they were interviewed by the teacher. It is pointed out by Bell (1985, p.50) that the teacher-student relationship is a "political one, set within a considerable inequality of power" so that in many respects, the interactions between them "are marked by coercion and resistance". Although

there was a possibility that students tended to say something that the teacher wanted to hear during the interview, the anonymous questionnaire responses could be used to cross validate what they said.

The above are the problems and limitations of this study. They all have, to different extents, some effects on the findings of the study. Nevertheless, since the findings of this study are based on data from different sources, the data help to complement and supplement each other. One should also bear in mind these limitations when interpreting the results.

VI.5.2 Summary

To summarize, the empirical study took the form of a case study of action research carried out in a secondary school in Hong Kong. The purposes of the empirical study were to explore (a) if 2L-LEA could make English lessons more interesting and the learning of English more effective for the specific target group of students; and (b) the practical feasibility of 2L-LEA activities for learning English as a second language among lower secondary students in Hong Kong in general.

A pilot study lasting for half an academic year was conducted with an M.2 language remedial group. The experience obtained was made use of in the planning and implementation of the study proper which lasted for one academic year with a F.1 language remedial group of 22 students. Different 2L-LEA activities within and without the classroom were tried out. Data in the form of diary notes, questionnaire responses, interview responses, English attainment test results, and comments from other teachers were collected. Questionnaire responses and English attainment test results of another F.1 language remedial group were also collected for comparison with those of the target group.

An analysis of the data collected showed that the empirical study has achieved its purposes. On the one hand, 2L-LEA was able to make English lessons more interesting as most of the target students felt that they liked English lessons and pointed out that they liked the variety of activities, the class writing (i.e. the writing of class/group experience stories) and the light and relaxed atmosphere of the lessons. As far as the effectiveness of the approach in the learning of English was concerned, the target students did not show a significant improvement in their academic self-image with respect to English learning. But they had shown some improvement in their writing as reflected in their Guided Writing results of the English Attainment Tests. Their performance in the class experience story sessions and conferences also showed that they had become more verbal and confident in talking about their experiences. On the other hand, the empirical study in a confined setting has demonstrated that it is technically feasible and theoretically practicable to integrate some 2L-LEA elements, though not all, into the existing lower secondary English curriculum. Class/group experience stories based on themes/topics of the core curriculum and directed writing are the most appropriate activities to complement and supplement the existing curriculum without bringing too much disruption to the teaching plan.

All in all, six limitations were found about this study. The first one was the the conflicting role and the heavy workload resulting from the combination of research and action. But this limitation was also considered the strength of the study as it allowed me, the teacher-researcher to gain a natural access and indepth understanding of the reality. The second limitation was the unclear wordings of some questions which led to confusion among certain students' answers and unusable data had to be discarded. The third limitation was related to the large number of nonrespondents for the post-study questionnaire among Group A, the non-target group. The fourth limitation was the small number of

students involved which made the statistical treatment of the data misleading. The fifth limitation was the possible bias in marking students' English Attainment Test (Test B) papers since the papers of each class were marked by English teachers who taught the class. The sixth limitation was the possibility of students failing to reveal their true feeling during the teacher-student interview owing to the considerable inequality of power between a teacher and a student.

It is inevitable that there always exist different kinds of foreseeable as well as unforeseeable limitations in the methodology, design and process of any empirical study. The interpretation of results of the present action research has taken into consideration the different limitations and based its discussion on data collected from various sources so as to provide a fuller picture of the situation from different perspectives.

Chapter Seven
General Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

The purpose of this research was to examine the potential of the Language Experience Approach in a second language learning situation. A 2L-LEA programme was proposed and a small scale action research study was conducted to explore the feasibility and effectiveness of using 2L-LEA activities with a group of secondary one students in Hong Kong.

In the process of the research, the English learning situation in Hong Kong was first analysed. It has been shown that on the one hand, Hong Kong's colonial status and economic development make English an important official and employment language, and lead to a bilingual education situation with an unbalanced emphasis on English learning for utilitarian ends. On the other hand, with the majority of the population being ethnic Chinese who have a strong identification with the Chinese culture and civilization in spite of signs of westernization on the surface, the society is basically monolingual with Chinese being the everyday language of the majority as well as the language toward which they have developed a more positive affective attitude. English in Hong Kong is very much a second language in a foreign language context.

The unbalanced emphasis on English at the expense of Chinese, as revealed in the language policy over the decades leads to many undesirable educational and psychological effects on the students. The secondary one students in the Anglo-Chinese secondary schools are considered to be experiencing the greatest difficulty in English learning as most of them have to adjust to the change from learning English as a subject in primary school to using it as a tool for learning other subjects in secondary school. Almost every lesson has become an English lesson and English learning is equated with learning new words and sentence patterns from set textbooks. This together with the conventional language teaching approach used

in the English classroom lead to a general lack of confidence and competence in using the language.

From the analysis of the problems in English learning and the current proposals on language in education made by the Education Committee (1984 & 1986), six areas are identified for change and improvement in the secondary one English classroom. They are: (1) the choice of textbooks; (2) the relevance of the syllabus to the students' level and needs as well as to the sociocultural environment; (3) the format of classroom organization; (4) the teacher's recognition of the significance of the students as individuals with their own needs, previous knowledge and language experience, and the contribution of these to the learning process; (5) the supportive elements available to build up students' confidence in using the language; and (6) the role of mother tongue in the second language learning process.

LEA, which offers an alternative approach to the traditional reading/language learning instruction, appears to possess potential answers to these areas, for it starts not from textbooks but from the language and experience of the learners and is basically learner-centred, emphasizing the relevance and meaning of the learning material to the learners. So it is examined in great detail to see whether the approach is applicable to the target group of this study -- the secondary one students of Hong Kong.

An examination of the basic premises of LEA shows that they are firmly rooted in linguistic, educational, and psychological foundations. From the review of previous studies on LEA, it is gathered that LEA does have the potential to cater for the needs of the target group of this study in that (1) with modifications (such as blending in problem-solving and inquiry methods, introducing less contextually supported materials and utilizing more group activities), it is applicable to secondary level students; (2) it is an effective approach for learners undergoing a transitional

stage by starting from the familiar to the unknown, and also helps to lower their level of anxiety; and (3) it makes reading meaningful and interesting, and more importantly, integrates the different language skills which are essential for a holistic development of language. Nevertheless, whether LEA which makes use of the learner's oral language extensively for the creation of their reading materials will work in the context of Hong Kong where the secondary one students have limited oral English and insufficient exposure to English, was the question to be solved.

With a review of different language learning theories, it is shown that the general principles drawn from the second language learning theories do support the basic premises of LEA in that (1) human beings are by nature active agents in seeking meaning in their experience and acquiring knowledge of the unknown; (2) a whole person approach should be used for second language learning, taking into consideration the cognitive, linguistic and affective aspects of the learner as well as their ability to use different strategies to learn a language; (3) mutual interest and negotiation of meaning are needed to provide a temporary "scaffolding" in the second language learning process; (4) the learner's contribution should be valued and mistakes should be accepted in the second language learning process; (5) language and culture are inseparable so that the second language learner's own sociocultural background and experience should be recognised; (6) a supportive atmosphere is needed to lower the learner's "affective filter"; and (7) it is more desirable that second language learning starts from oral to written.

The study then proceeds to argue that oral proficiency, though it facilitates the process of LEA, is not necessarily a prerequisite for it to be applied to second language learners, especially those learning the target language in a foreign language environment. The major arguments put forward are: (1) language skills should not be isolated and learned separately, and second

language learning should be an integrative process; (2) the purpose of second language learning and the language environment that the learner is in will determine the best mode of language that the learner should focus on initially; (3) the innate meaning seeking incentive of learners with their literacy skills in first language and their other background experience will enable them to understand more than they can speak in the second language.

Thus, the theoretical basis for the use of LEA in second language learning, especially in a foreign language context where learners have limited spoken language, is established. The theoretical basis enables the evolution of a modified form of LEA for second language learners -- 2L-LEA. The principles of 2L-LEA, are basically similar to those of the conventional LEA except that (1) it does not uphold the learner's oral competence as the prerequisite of the approach; (2) it allows learners to start from different modes of learning; (3) it provides classroom "scaffolding" to compensate for the lack of natural input and interaction; (4) it maintains the need for a balance between language fluency and accuracy; and (5) it utilizes the learners first language to facilitate the second language learning process.

To concretize the 2L-LEA principles and pedagogical implications, a practical proposal for a 2L-LEA programme with reference to the lower secondary school students in Hong Kong was made. The programme proposes different activities to help students create their own learning materials within the English classroom, namely key vocabulary method, directed writing method, experience story method, creative writing method, and inquiry method. Supportive activities like keeping a word bank, keeping writing folders, follow-up language structure activities, publication activities and library usage are also suggested. The proposed 2L-LEA programme also tries to provide answers to the six areas where there is a felt need for change and innovative ideas in the secondary one English classroom as discussed earlier.

To put theory into practice and to explore the feasibility and effectivness of incorporating 2L-LEA into the English curriculum of a Hong Kong lower secondary classroom, a small scale empirical study was carried out to servė as an initial tryout of the programme. The study was basically a case study in the form of action research and it collected mainly qualitative data. The reasons for the choice of such a methodology were several. Firstly, as this was an initial attempt to put a theoretical approach into practice, it was more appropriate to gain an understanding of the process and insight into the meaning for those involved through descriptive data than to get sophisticated statistical data to prove or disprove a hypothesis. Secondly, the study was small scale and was confined to a small group of students. The experience was very much contextualized in one particular group of students in a school and was not meant for generalization. It was, therefore, within the "bounded system" of a case study. Thirdly, my role as the full time teacher of the school as well as the researcher of this study offered me the opportunity to look at my own classroom, improve the teaching and learning situation by introducing some new elements, and to evaluate and make modifications on the basis of students' feedback. In other words, the study was also a teacher-initiated action research study. However, some quantitative data were used in the study. Quantitative data in the form of attitude scales and marks of students were still used to provide relevant information to the study.

A pilot study and the main study were carried out between February 1989 to June 1990. The data collected from the main study showed that the target students did find the amount of English needed in their study quite overwhelming as they first entered the secondary school. An analysis of the data collected from different sources showed that towards the end of the school year, the target students were able to spot that the atmopshere and the affective aspect of the class and the kind of language activities they had were different from what they had in their previous English

and the majority of them said they liked the changes they had in that year and they liked English lessons. Class/Group experience story telling was the activity they like best, after language games, and they also enjoyed reading their class produced stories. Although their academic self-image with respect to the learning of English did not improve, they definitely had demonstrated that they could write much better through the actual work they produced over the year, especially during individual conferences and also through the great improvement they made in the Guided Writing results they got for the second English Attainment Test.

Although the results of the main study was specific to the target group only, the actual implementation of 2L-LEA in a lower secondary classroom learning English as a second language in Hong Kong does imply that it is feasible to apply the approach to supplement the existing lower secondary English curriculum if the school is not ready to renew too much of the existing practice. However, if the existing timetable does not allow more time for activities like inquiry, follow-up work on spontaneous class experience stories, individual conferences and publication activities, some of these activities cannot be done very often and others have to be done outside lesson time. They take up a lot of a teacher's own free time for other work and duties, which makes it technically not so practicable if the teacher has to teach English to more than one class of students.

The theory of 2L-LEA, however, proved to work very well when it was put into practice. Firstly, even students without too much spoken English had their confidence gradually built up to express themselves with the help of the teacher and got their words written down. Students of different levels of oral competence in the class could contribute to the 2L-LEA activities in different ways. Secondly, it was not always necessary for language experience stories to be shared orally first. Unlike first language learners of English, the target students had always learned the written

English hand in hand with the spoken English, the 2L-LEA sessions could, therefore, start from the writing mode. Thirdly, owing to the lack of natural input and interaction in the target students' living environment, classroom "scaffolding" provided by the teacher as well as student peers was found essential in giving support to students and shaping the students' language in the process of negotiation of meaning. Fourthly, as the focus of the 2L-LEA sessions was mainly on meaning and classroom "scaffolding" was provided to shape the language, a balance of language fluency and accuracy was maintained. Fifthly, students' first language and their previous literacy experience were utilized in the process of conveying experience and negotiation of meaning. This was found to facilitate their second language learning process. In other words, 2L-LEA as an approach evolved from LEA, is no longer confined to an initial reading approach for beginner learners, but has a much wider application both in terms of the types of learners and the purposes served.

To conclude, in response to the six areas identified for change and improvement in the secondary one English classroom as highlighted in Chapter One, 2L-LEA is able to provide possible solutions in the following ways. (1) It supplements the existing textbooks as reading texts can be produced from students' experience stories. (2) The use of students' experience stories as the teaching materials makes learning more relevant to their level, needs, interests and sociocultural environment. (3) The format of a 2L-LEA lesson is truely student-centred and there are plenty of opportunities for meaningful interaction between teacher and students and also among students. It is especially suitable for split classs or remedial groups. (4) It enables students to contribute their previous knowledge and experience to the learning process, integrating language learning with the growth of a whole person. (5) Supportive elements to build up students' confidence in using the language are found in the learning process and also in the way the students' work is valued. (6) The students' mother

tongue is constructively used to facilitate the process of learning.

Based on the findings of the study, several implications can be drawn for further studies. Firstly, since the target students' writing seemed to have improved significantly, it would be interesting to analyze various aspects of students' writing to show more specifically the ways in which their writing has been improved. Secondly, as discussion and verbal experience sharing are not common practices in the secondary one English classrooms, the extent that 2L-LEA can improve second language learners' oral competence is another area worth exploring. Thirdly, if similar 2L-LEA studies like the present one were to be carried out in school, a longitudinal study would be best so that more insight could be found concerning the effect of the approach on students' learning of English. Fourthly, it would also make an interesting as well as revolutionary study to try out 2L-LEA with a class which can do away with the textbook but make use of different resources available.

To conclude, the key messages of this study are:

1. There is a need for an alternative approach to be introduced to the secondary one English classrooms in Hong Kong.

2. The basic premises of LEA are rooted in proven linguistic, educational and psychological foundations. There is also a strong theoretical basis for LEA to be applied to second language learners, including those in a foreign language context.

3. 2L-LEA, a modified form of LEA, has shown its potential for addressing the needs of the secondary one students in Hong Kong, learning English as their second language and providing an alternative approach for the secondary one English

curriculum..

4. It was shown through an action research study that it was feasible to incorporate 2L-LEA into the context of a school in Hong Kong.

5. 2L-LEA helps to extend the scope of LEA to a wider range of learners and for a wider range of teaching and learning purposes.

6. Further research is needed to explore and evaluate the effectiveness of 2L-LEA on second language learners.

NOTES

1. Britain underwent different stages in acquiring Hong Kong as her colony. In 1842, the Hong Kong Island was ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Nanking; and it was followed by the ceding of Kowloon (the peninsula) and Stonecutters Island by the Convention of Nanking in 1860. The 1898 Convention of Peking leased the New Territories to Britain for 99 years, adding an area of around 900 sq. km., including numerous islands and a large body of sea to the colony (Wesley-Smith, 1980).

2. The Four Modernization programmes were advocated for the development of the Chinese economy. They are modernizations in 4 major fields, namely agriculture, industry, national defence and science and technology.

3. It is nevertheless, that during the past 38 years, Hong Kong has gradually developed its own form of `Cantonese' with colloquial expressions and catch words quite different from that currently used in Guangzhou.

4. Putonghua is a speech form based phonologically on the dialect of the capital, Peking; grammatically on the structure of the North Chinese dialect group; and lexically and stylistically on the works of certain representative modern Chinese writers (Pan, 1979).

5. It is suggested in Liu (1987) that the move to adopt Chinese as an official language was a response to the 1967 riot (understood as an extension of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution in China). To find out ways of preventing similar anti-British sentiments among local Chinese people in future, the Governor appointed a Chinese Language Committee in 1970 "to examine the use of Chinese in official business and to advise on practical ways and means by which the use of Chinese might be further extended in the interest of good administration and for the convenience of the public." (Quoted in Liu, 1987, p.43)

6. There were only two universities in Hong Kong before 1992. Sixth form education for a Chinese Middle School graudate used to be one year which ended with the Higher Level Examination leading to the Chinese University of Hong Kong (4 year curriculum). The sixth form course in Anglo-Chinese schools lasted for two years, preparing students for the Advanced Level Examination leading to the Hong Kong University (3 year curriculum). In the University of Hong Kong, the language of instruction is predominantly English, with tutorials in Chinese occasionally. The Chinese University uses mainly Chinese for instruction, however, English, particularly for

reading, is not uncommon. Among the three teacher training colleges, two are primarily English medium; and in the two Polytechnics and the three "recognized" tertiary colleges, there is a mixture of language media, but they have a strong tendency for reading and writing materials to be in English and speech in Chinese. Therefore, comparatively speaking, students from an Anglo-Chinese school had greater opportunities in receiving tertiary education than those from Chinese Middle schools because the Higher Level Examination accepted papers answered in Chinese as well as English, but not vice versa as far as Advanced Level Examination was concerned. Moreover, most of the post-secondary institutes and colleges prefer or accept only students from Anglo-Chinese schools.

7. This is a system which installs induction loop into a classroom so that students can listen to a tape played on the master cassette recorder or the teacher speaking through the microphone of the recorder by wearing wireless headphones. This allows better listening even if the surroundings of the classroom is noisy, and at the same time, the sound of the tape recorder will not disturb other classes. The wireless headphones allow free movements of the students and varied group activities can go on in the class at the same time. Under the scheme of the government, every government and subsidized school has one of their classrooms installed with this system and the number of wireless headphones sufficient for a normal sized class are provided.

8. As mentioned in Report No.1, the Education Research Establishment (ERE) of the Education Department undertook four research projects on the language of instruction in secondary schools. Three of these were conducted in collaboration with the University of Hong Kong (HKU) or the Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK). In addition, the ERE also understook a study on the effectiveness of split-class teaching of English. These five projects were completed in late 1985.

9. A classic example of this is the story of Carmel Secondary School. The school was popular among parents as an Anglo-Chinese School. It decided to adopt Chinese as the medium of instruction in 1987 as a response to advocate mother-tongue education. Since then, parents who preferred to have their children taught in English shied away from it and the quality of applicants suffered. Even though teachers in this school agreed that mother-tongue education did enhance students' learning ability, they were frustrated by the declining quality of their students, the lack of teaching materials in Chinese as well as long term policy back-up by the government, they finally voted to switch back to teaching in English after a trial of 3 years (Lau & Yeung, 1990).

10. The average number of periods in a secondary school is 40 a week. Usually nine periods are allocated to English language and six to Chinese language.

11. Cummins' "threshold level hypothesis" proposes that there is a minimum level of linguistic competence which a child must attain in order to avoid cognitive deficits. If a child has a low threshold competence in his first language, it is very likely that a similar low level will be present in the second, thereby not allowing for the positive aspects of bilingualism to develop.

12. The following figure shows the continuum of the functional variety in oral and written expressions. (Ruddell, 1970, p.5)

Functional Variety Level	Oral Language	Written Language
Informal language	Home and school	Personal notes,letters to friends, unedited language experience stories
Formal language	Classroom lectures	School textbooks, edited public speeches, experience stories
Literary	Formal papers,	Literature as an art form, speech as an art form, aesthetic dimensions of written language

13. Donaldson tried out similar experiments that Piaget carried out on children by varying the experimental design or the language of instruction thus yielding different results. This implies that many of Piaget's subjects might not have fully understood the task that they were asked to perform. What children are doing is attending to both linguistic form and the perceptible properties of the situation of utterance, in order to grasp the 'meaning' (what is required for them to respond appropriately). For details, please see Donaldson's book (1978).

14. This is a longitudinal study directed by Wells. It follows the development of a representative sample of children from their first words to the end of primary education.

15. According to Krashen (1981), there are two distinct and independent systems, namely language acquisition and language learning, for the second language learner to internalize rules. "Language acquisition" is a subconscious process similar to that of first language development. The language acquirers are usually unaware of the fact that they are acquiring language, but are only using the language for

communication. They are also not conscious of the rules of the language they have acquired. In contrast, 'language learning' refers to conscious knowledge of a second language. The learner is aware of the rules they use and are able to talk about them. The focus of language use is on form rather than on communication.

With the distinction of these two systems as its basic premise, Krashen puts forward the Monitor Hypothesis which claims that acquisition "initiates" the acquirer's utterance in a second language and is responsible for language fluency, whereas language learned consciously is available to the second langauge learner as a "monitor" to modify the output of the acquired system under these conditions: (i) Time : A second language performer needs to have sufficient time to think about and use conscious rules effectively, (ii) Focus on form: The performer must also be focussed on form or thinking about correctness, and (iii) Know the rule: The performer should know the rule they are to use for their purpose. Thus Krashen draws the conclusion that acquisition is central and learning more perpheral.

16. Littlewood (1984) defines "routine formula" as "an utterance which the learner produces as a single, unanalysed unit, rather than creating it from underlying rules", e.g. "Don't do that", "Get out of here". "Prefabricated pattern" is defined as having "at least one slot which can be filled by alternative items, thus allowing a certain degree of creativity", e.g. "I know how to .....".

    Huang & Hatch (1978) reported that their subject, a Chinese child, was able to produce, in the first few weeks of learning, a few utterances of a structural ability at a different level to that of his two-word novel utterances. It seems that these are specific utterances used in frequent occasions so that he is able to remember them as complete units. Hakuta (1974, 1976) found in his study of a Japanese child that he is able to memorize the main body of an utterance with various itmes in the slot. It is only at a later stage that more creative usage was made.

17. Brumfit maintains that if input is too much related to the structure of language, a language learner will turn out to be trained as a linguist; at the same time he recognizes that the linguistic input is still desirable for initial presentation and systematic remedial work, but rejects the isolation of intellectual learning from other aspects of development (Brumfit, 1984).

18. There appears to be a consistent relationship between various forms of anxiety and language proficiency in all situations, personal or classroom, formal or informal. Wittenborn, Larsen

and Virgil (1945, cited by Krashen 1981b) studied college French and Spanish students, and found that low and high achievers may be distinguished by level of anxiety as well as degree of self-confidence. Chastain (1975) also reported a negative correlation of test anxiety and success in audio-lingually taught French in an American university. Moreover, it is found that the learner who feels at ease in the classroom and likes the teacher may be more involved in learning, resulting in more learning (Seliger, 1977).

19. It is generally held that learners with self-confidence and a good self-image tend to do better in second language acquisition. Heyde (1977) studied the relationship between self-esteem and oral production in second language learners of English at the University of Michigan and found a high correlation between the individual's evaluation of his own worth and the teacher ratings of oral production. Oller et al. (1977b) also found in their study of Chinese students with English as their second language, a variety of positive self-perceptions relating to performance on the Cloze test.

20. Motivation is related to the learner's reasons for learning a second language. Gardner and Lambert (1972) identify two motivational orientations for second language learning. The first one is an integrative motivation which refers to the desire to be like speakers of the target language. Learners with such motivation value, admire and like to interact with the speakers of the target language. The second one is an instrumental motivation which indicates the desire to learn the second language for more utilitarian reasons (e.g. promotion prospect, educational requirement) rather than an interest in the people of the target language.

It is generally thought that the former is more powerful when the learner is in a host language environment. Recent studies however, suggest that motivational orientation that is associated with proficiency in the second language seems to vary according to setting. An integrative motivation appears to be more effective in settings where it is neither necessary nor an accepted fact of life that the second langauge be acquired, such as learning French or German in the United States (Schumann, 1978). It is even found that with colonized populations, such as Mexican-Americans in the Southwest of the United States, proficiency in English, their second language, is associated with an anti-integrative motivation (Oller et al. 1977a). Thus motivations are complex constructs that interact with other variables, especially social context.

21. The leading figures in humanistic psychology are A. H. Maslow, and C. R. Rogers. Maslow (1970) listed a hierarchy of needs that the individual needs to be satisfied, namely physiological needs, needs for security, belongingness, esteem

for self and for others, and self realization. It is when a lower-level need (the list is in an ascending order) is satisfied that the upper-level need can be attained. It is not the scope of this paper to study the validity of this hierarchy of needs. What we are interested is its impact on second language learning theories as discussed in the text.

22. According to Brumfit (1984), "accuracy" refers to language use that tends to be form-based, and is being produced for "display purpose". This is the typical convention of language learning as there is always a demand to produce work for display to the teacher for evaluation and feedback. "Fluency" is to be regarded as natural language use, whether or not it results in native-speaker-like language comprehension or production. It is meaning-based and language is always a means to an end rather than an end in itself. The orientation of an activity in class may be towards either accuracy or fluency according to the purpose of the learning at any given moment.

23. The habit-formation model usually has the learning materials and the classroom situation structured in such a way that the learner rarely makes mistakes in practising the language drills. No first language is used so that only "correct" habits are presumed to be performed. The cognitive-code model considers that new learning draws on previous learning, as Stern puts it, "Once language development has taken place, it produces a lasting structural change. If a new language is learned in later years, it is filtered through the language acquisition device of the individual, modified by his first language" (Stern, 1970, p.64; quoted in Rivers, 1983, p.91). The Sociocultural model emphasizes the notion of interaction and meaning in language usage, first language is, therefore, definitely not to be used in the process of communication in the second language.

24. Researchers in second language learning have been attempting to determine what factors are involved in second language learning process. Schumann (1978, p.29) has drawn up a taxonomy of the factors which researchers believe to be important in the process of becoming bilingual. This includes a range of social, affective, personality, cognitive, biological, aptitude, personal input, and instructional factors. Apparently, the factors listed in the taxonomy are not exhaustive, what is important is to attempt identify which factor or set of factors are more decisive in that they cause second language learning to occur.

25. For further details on the influence of the language status on learner's attitude, please see discussion in Beardsmore (1982).

26. The concept of "affective filter" was put forward by Dulay and

Burt (1977). The major affective variables which are related to success in second language acquisition are motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. It is hypothesized that a high or strong affective filter will impede the learning process of a second language.

27. There is a review of other studies supporting the view that reading in the second language should be introduced when the learner has achieved mastery of oral language skills in the second language in chapter 5 of Ambert & Melendez (1985).

28. Goodman & Goodman's understanding of "reading" is based on their own as well as many others studies using the reading miscues procedure. This is a procedure which requires the reader to read orally a long and complete story followed by an oral retelling. All the data is audiotaped for later analysis. No aid is given to the reader as he continues reading. The miscues, i.e. observed oral responses from them which do not match the expected responses, are then analysed so as to determine the degree to which a reader focuses on the various language systems (graphic-phonic, syntatic and semantic) and the degree to which the reader is concerned with developing meaning while reading.

29. In addition to schemata, different terms are used by different researchers for the concept of background knowledge, such as frames, scripts, event chains and expectations. For reference on research of the psychological processes involved in these terms, please see the bibliography of Carrell's paper (1983).

30. However, Carrell admits that the research only identifies that human beings approach the comprehension task with both formal and content schemata, the interactive effect of these two types of schemata is still unknown and the means to measure the separate or interactive contributions of them is also not yet worked out.

31. Research studies on the transference of second language learners' skills from first language to second language are quite thoroughly discussed in Ch.2 of Harley (1986).

32. Some Canadian Studies on French immersion programmes (Berik & Swain, 1975) indicate that children taught to read initially in a second language (French) eventually did as well in reading in their first language (English) when compared to monolingual speakers of English. Nevertheless, this result does not necessarily contradict the Modiano Study as we consider the caveats of interpreting results of these studies stated by Cummins and Lambert respectively (Alderson, 1984). The former points out that many studies into bilingualism did not control or measure the subjects' proficiency in the first and second language; and the latter states that in the

Canadian case, the second language has been a socially relevant language which was unlikely to be replaced by the first language itself as a prestigeous language. This is a situation of additive bilingualism where positive effects like the transfer of reading ability from the second language to the first is noted. In contrast, in situations like the Mexican case where the first language is socially inferior and also gradually replaced by the second language, subtractive bilingualism is said to exist. Learning to read in a second language might not be expected to transfer to the first language whereas initial reading instruction in the first language might have positive effects upon learning skills like reading.

33. As the ideas listed below are very much interrelated with one another, they may appear to be overlapping in some way. But for the sake of laying different emphases, they are distinguished as separate points.

34. By looking at the kinds of errors that second language learners make, Littlewood (1984) states the evidence of three main learning processes, namely transfer of rules from the mother tongue, generalization (or over-generalization) of second language rules, and redundancy reduction by omitting elements.

35. A place in a secondary school in Hong Kong is determined by moderated school assessment through a centrally administered academic aptitude test, parental choice of school and 24 district nets. Children are placed within these districts according to 5 gradations of aptitudes and allocated randomly to the secondary schools within their net having regard to parental preference.

36. In the school, the general practice of naming classes is to use `F' (i.e. Form) for classes belonging to the English section and `M' (i.e. Middle) for classes belonging to the Chinese section.

37. In September 1982, the school followed the recommendation of the Hong Kong Education Department and started remedial language classes in the first two years of the secondary school. The school adopted the objectives for remedial language teaching proposed by the Education Department (1982), which are:

(a) to provide remedial help for pupils who have fallen behind the rest of the class;
(b) to teach these pupils in smaller class, so that there is more individual attention; and
(c) to get these pupils back into the mainstream class -- the

ultimate aim.

The usual practice of the school in putting students into the English remedial class in F.1 and M.1 is to have students sitting a screening test before the beginning of term. The school adopted the English Attainment Test (Test A) set by the Hong Kong Education Department as the screening test. In F.2 and M.2, pupils are streamed into the remedial classes by their examination results and the opinions of teachers. The number of remedial classes in each section and at each year may vary from school year to school year according to the availability of teachers and also the priority of the school policies for that year. In the school year 1989/90, there were two English remedial classes in year 1, one in F.1 and and one in M.1. The pupils of an English remedial class are split into two groups, A and B, during their English lessons, each taught by a different English teacher. As for the other subjects, they have lessons together as a normal class. At the end of each term, pupils will be examined on the same English paper as the other pupils in the other classes of the same year.

38. The case study has been a widely used approach in many disciplines thus it has come to mean different things to different people. According to Smith (1978), a deciding factor of a case study is whether a "bounded system" can be identified as the focus of the investigation. By "bounded system", he means any specific phenomenon such as a programme, an event, a person, a process, an institution, or a social group.

39. Armstrong (1981) thinks that some anecdotes can provide a richer sense of the particular, and are indispensible both for educational research and for the theory and practice of education as a whole. He quotes from the speech of Raymond Verrier to support his view that one of the major tasks of teacher-based research is to 'dignify the anecdote': the moment which gives meaning to reflection and to generalisation.

40. Stenhouse (1985c, p.52) maintains that the case study should be "a systematization of experience within which interpretations are critically handled in the interests of preventing experience from becoming opinionated". To achieve this, it is suggested that "case record" -- "a lightly edited, ordered, indexed and public version of the case data" -- should be presented (Rudduck, 1985, p.102) so that others can verify the interpretation from the "evidence". Moreover, the language employed is also to be "comprehensible" rather than "technical" for the case report to be fully accessible to the readers. Comments and validation from those involved in the study on the manuscript of the report could also be consulted

to clarify unclear or inaccurately presented points (see Shipman, 1981). Considerations like this will therefore be taken into my treatment of data.

41. The reading scheme was implemented in classes from secondary one to secondary three. There was a class library in each class with books categorized into 3 grades. Students read books according to their own level. After reading 5 books of one grade (at least 3 books should be chosen from the class library and 2 from other sources), students could be upgraded to the next level. To make sure that students did read a book, a set of multiple choice questions was set for each class library book, so that students had to take the test when they finished reading a book. As for books borrowed elsewhere, students had to do a simple book report on it. One lesson in each cycle was also allocated as library period during which students could read their library books or come to the teacher for tests.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adelman, C., Jenkins, D. & Kemmis, S. (1977). "Re-thinking case study: notes from the second Cambridge Conference". Cambridge Journal of Eudcation, 6: 139-150.

Alderson, J.C. (1984). "Reading in a Foreign Language: a Reading Problem or a Language Problem?" In J.C. Alderson, & A.H. Urquhart (eds.), Reading in a Foreign Language, pp 1-27. Longman.

Allen, R.V. (1962). A Description of Three Approaches to the Teaching of Reading, Monograph No.2. San Diego, California: Department of Education, San Diego County.

_____ (1964). "A New Approach to Reading". Wilson Library Bulletin, 39, pp 154-159.

_____ (1968). "How a Language Experience Programme Works". V.M. Howes & H.F. Darrow (eds.), Reading and the Elementary School Child: Selected Readings on Programmes and Practices. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Allen, R.V. & Allen, C. (1976). Language Experience Activities. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Allwright, D. (1988). Observation in the Language Classroom. London: Longman.

Ambert, A.N. & Melendez, S.E. (1985). Bilingual Education: A Source Book. New York: Garland Publishing,Inc.

Armstrong, M. (1981). "The case of Louise and the painting of landscape". In J. Nixon (ed.), A Teachers' Guide to Action Research, pp 15-36. London: Grant Mcintyre.

Ashton-Warner, S. (1963). Teacher. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Baker, C. (1988). Key Issues in Bilingualism and Bilingual Education. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Barik, H.C. & Swain, M. (1975). "Three-Year Evaluation of Large Scale Early Grade French- Immersion Programme: The Ottawa Study". Language Learning, 25(1), pp 1-30.

Baynham, M. (1983). "ESL and the Mother Tongue: Teaching Towards Bilingualism". ESL Teaching and the Mother Tongue. ILEA ESL Publishing Group. pp 5-16.

Beardsmore, H.B. (1982). Bilingualism: Basic Principles. Multilingual Matters.

Becker, J.T. (1970). "Language Experience Approach in a Job Corps Reading Lab". Journal of Reading, 13, pp 281-284 & 319-321.

Bell, S.J. (1985). "Participant Observation with Pupils". In R.G. Burgess (Ed.), Strategies of Educational Research: Qualitative Methods, pp. 23-53. London: The Falmer Press.

Bereiter C. & Scardamalin, M. (1983). "Does learning to write have to be so difficult?" In A. Freedman, I. Pringle, & J. Yalden (eds.), Learning to Write: First Language/Second Language, pp 20-33. London: Longman.

Bever, T.G. (1970). "The Cognitive Basis for Linguistic Structurs". In J.R. Hayes (ed.), Cognition and the Development of Language, pp 279-362. New York: Wiley.

Bickerton, D. (1976). Dynamics of a Creole System. Cambridge University Press.

Bloomfield, L. (1933). Language. New York: Holt.

_____ (1942). "Linguistics and Reading". Elementary English Review, 19, pp 26-33.

Blum-Kulka, S. & Levenston, E.A. (1983). "Universals of lexical simplification". In C. Faerch & Kasper, G. (Eds.), Strategies in Interlanguage Communication. London: Longman.

Bond, G.L. & Dykstra, R. (1967). "The Cooperative Programme in First Grade Reading Instruction". Reading Research Quarterly 2, p.142.

Bond, T. (1986). Games for Social and Life Skills. London: Hutchinson.

Borg, W.R. & Gall, M.D. (1983). Educational Research: An Introduction (4th ed.). New York: Longman.

Boyle, E.R. (1990). "Is there a bilingual answer for Hong Kong?" Evaluation And Research in Education, 4(3), pp. 117-127.

Braun, C. (1977a). "Experience: The Basis for Communication Skills Development". In C. Braun & V. Froese (eds.), An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading, pp 3-15. Baltimore: University Park Press.

_____ (1977b). "Record Keeping". In C. Braun & V. Froese (eds.), An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading, pp 223-229. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Braun, C. & Froese, V. (eds.) (1977). An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Brewin Report. (1901). Hong Kong: Government Press.

British Council. (1994). The Secondary One English Language Immersion Bridge Programme. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Brookover, W.B. & Erickson E.L. (1969). Society, School and Learning. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Broughton, G., Brumfit, C., Flavell, R., Hill, P. & Pincas, A. (1980). Teaching English as a Foreign Language (2nd Edition). London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Brown, C. (1975). Literacy in 30 hours: Paulo Freire's Process in North East Brazil. London: Centre for Open Learning and Teaching.

Brown, D.H. (1980). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Brown, G.I. (1971). Human Teaching for Human Learning: An Introduction to Confluent Education. New York: Viking.

Brown, H.P. (1971). "The Hong Kong Economy: Achievements and Prospects". In K. Hopkins (ed.), Hong Kong: the Industrial Colony, Hong Kong, pp 1-20. Oxford University Press, 1971.

Brumfit, C. (1984). Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching: The Role of Fluency and Accuracy. Cambridge University Press.

Bruner, J.S. (1961). "The Act of Discovery". Harvard Educational Review, 31(22), pp 21-32.

_____ (1964). "The Course of Cognitive Development", American Psychologist, 19, pp 1-15.

Burgess, R.G. (1982). "Multiple strategies in field research". In R.G. Burgess (ed.), Field Research: A Sourcebook and Field Manual. London: Allen & Unwin.

_____ (1985). "Issues and problems in educational research: An introduction", In R.G. Burgess (ed.), Issuees in Educational Research: Qualitative Methods, pp. 1-17. London: Falmer Press.

Burney Report (1935). Hong Kong: Government Press.

Burstall, C. (1977). "Primary French in the Balance". Foreign Language Annals, 10: 245-258.

Cachie, G. (1973). The effect of two language experience approaches on the reading comprehension, visual discrimination and word knowledge reference of black kindergarten students who are speakers of non-standard dialect. Unpublished Ed. D. Dissertation, New York University.

Calvert, J.D. (1973). An exploratory story to adapt the Language Experience Approach to remedial 7th and 10th grade Mexican American students. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, New York University.

Cansdale, J.S. (1969). "Cultural problems of Chinese students in a Western-type university". In I.C. Jarvie and J. Agassi (eds.), Hong Kong: A Society in Transition, pp 345-360. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Carrell, P.L. (1983). Some issues in studying the role of schemata or background knowledge in second language Comprehension. Paper presented at the 1983 TESOL Convention. Toronto, Ontario, Canada.

Carrell, P.L. & Eisterhold, J.C. (1983). "Schema theory & ESL reading pedagogy". TESOL Quarterly, 17(4): 553-573.

Carroll, J.B. (1964). Language and Thoughts. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

_____ (1966). "The Contribution of psychological theory and educational research to the teaching of foreign languages". In A. Valdman (ed.), Trends in Language Teaching, pp 93-106. McGraw-Hill.

Cazden, C.B. (1974). "Play with language and metalinguistic awareness: One dimension of language experience organization". Mondiale pour l'Education Prescholaire, 6: 12-24.

Chall, J.S. (1967). Learning to Read: The Great Debate. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Chaney, D.C. & Podmore, D.B.C. (1973). Young Adults in Hong Kong: Attitudes in a Modernizing Society. Hong Kong: Centre of Asian Studies, University of Hong Kong.

Chao, Y.R. (1968). A Grammar of Spoken Chinese. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Chastain, K. (1975). "Affective ability factors in second language acquisition". Language Learning, 25: 153-161.

Cheng, J.Y.S. (1984). "The future of Hong Kong -- A Hong Kong belonger's View". In J.Y.S. Cheng (ed.), Hong Kong in Search of a Future, pp 1-27. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

_____ (1986). "Introduction". In J.Y.S. Cheng (ed.), Hong Kong in Transition, pp 1-25. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Cheng, K.Y. 鄭美彥 (1984). "語文教育如何適應變動中的香港社會" [The adaptation of language education to the changing society of Hong Kong]. 語文雜誌 [Language Journal], 12: 23-35.

Cheng, N.L. 鄭又倫 (1982). "取捨與取何：從另一個角度看教學語文媒介問題" [Choice and direction: Viewing the question of language medium from a different angle]. In Hong Kong Federation of Students (ed.), 香港教育透視 [A Perspective of HongKong Education], pp 97-105. Hong Kong: Wide Angle.

Cheng, N.L., Shek, K.C., Tse, K.K. & Wong, S.L. (1973). At What Cost? Hong Kong: private publication.

Cheng, W. 鄭旭寧 (1986). "How to maintain the standard of English teaching with the application of mother tongue as the language of instruction" [如何在推行母語教學中維持英語教學之水平]. In S.Y. Man (tran.), 今日基督教教育 [Christian Education Today], 34.

Cherry, C. (1966). On Human Communication. Cambridge: M.I.T. Press.

Cheung, N.G.H. (1979). A Critical Appraisal of the Relationship Between Attitudes and English Proficiency. Unpublished M.A. Dissertation, University of Hong Kong.

Cheung, M.W. (1974). The Relative Effectiveness of Teaching Comprehension through the use of Cantonese and English as Medium of Instruction. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Chinese University of Hong Kong. (in Chinese)

Cheung, Y.S. (1985). Readibility and Reading Comprehension: An Investigation of the Readability of Form 1 (Grade 7) Textbooks in English in Hong Kong Schools. Hong Kong: Alpha Educational Books Ltd.

Ching, D.C. (1976). Reading and the Bilingual Child. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association.

Chomsky, C. (1972). "Stages in language development and reading exposure". Harvard Educational Review, 42: 1-33.

_____ (1978). "When you still can't read in third grade: Aftr decoding, what?" In J. Samuels (ed.), What Research Has to Say About Reading Instruction, pp 13-30. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Chomsky, N. (1965). Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Cambridge: MIT Press.

_____ (1980). Rules and Explanations. New York: Columbia University Press.

Christopherson, D. (1973). Second-Language Learning: Myth and Reality. Harmondsworth: Penguin Education.

Chu-Chang, M. (1979). The dependency relation between oral language and reading in bilingual children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University.

_____ (1981). "The dependency relation between oral language and reading in bilingual children". Boston University Journal of Education, 163: 30-55.

Clark E. (1979). "Building a vocabulary: Words for objects, actions and relations". In P. Fletcher & M. Garmen (eds.), Language Acquisition. Cambridge: OUP.

Clark, J.L. (1987). Curriculum Renewal in School Foreign Language Learning. Oxford University Press.

Clay, M.M. (1975). What did I Write. Heinemann Educational Books.

_____ (1983). "Getting a theory of writing". In B.M. Kroll & G. Wells (eds.), Explorations in the Development of Writing. Chester: Wiley.

Cohen, L. (1976). Educational Research in Classrooman and Schools: A Manual of Materials and Methods. Harper & Row.

Cohen, L. & Manion, L. (1980). Research Methods in Education (2nd ed.). London: Croom Helm.

Corbett, E.P.J. (1965). Classical Rhetoric for the Modern Student. New York: Oxford University Press.

Cummins, J. (1977). "Immersion education in Ireland: A critical review of MacNamara's findings (with replies)". Working Papers in Bilingualism, 13: 121-129.

_____ (1979). "Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children". Review of Educational Research, 49(2): 221-251.

_____(1980). "Psychological assessment of immigrant children: Logic of intuition". Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 1(2): 97-111.

_____(1981). "Age on arrival and immigrant second language learning in Canada: A reassessment. Applied Linguistics, 2: 132-49.

Cummins, J., Swain, M., Nakajima, K., Handscombe, J., Green, D. & Tran, C. (1984). "Linguistic interdependence among Japanese and Vietnamese immigrant students". In C. Rivera (ed.), Communicative Competence Approaches to Language Proficiency Assessment: Research and Application. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Curran, C.A. (1972). Counselling-Learning: A Whole Person Model for Education. New York: Grune & Stratton.

_____ (1976). Counselling-Learning in Second Language. Illinois: Apple River Press.

Curriculum Development Committee. (1983). Syllabus for English (Forms 1-V). Hong Kong: Government Printer.

D.E.S. (1975). A Language for Life (Bullock Report). H.M.S.O.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and Education. New York: Macmillan.

Di Peitro, R.J. (1982). "The open-ended scenario: A new approach to conversation". TESOL Quarterly, 16(1): 15-20.

Donaldson, M. (1978). Children's Minds. Fontana Press.

Downey, I.J. (1977). "English or Chinese? The medium of instruction in Hong Kong". Compare, 7(1): 67-72.

Dulay, H.C. & Burt, M.K. (1974). "Natural sequences in child second language acquisition". Language Learning, 24: 37-53.

_____ (1977). "Remarks on creativity in language acquisition". In M. Burt, H. Dulay & M. Finnochiaro (eds.), Viewpoints on English as a Second Language, pp 95-126. New York: Regents.

Durette, R. (1972). "A five year FLES report". Modern Language Journal, 56: 23-24.

Durkin, D. (1966). Children Who Read Early. New York: Teachers College Press.

Ebbutt, D. (1985). "Educational action research: Some general concerns and specific quibbles". In R. B. Burgess (ed.), Issues in Educational Research: Qualitative Methods, pp. 152-176. London: The Falmer Press.

Education Commission. (1984). Education Commission Report No.1. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

_____ (1986). Education Commission Report No.2. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

_____ (1990). Education Commission Report No.4. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

_____ (1994). Report of the Working Group on Language Proficiency. Hong Kong: Government Printer.

Education Department. (1946-47). Annual Report. Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1982). Guidelines to Remedial Teaching (Circular to Secondary Schools). Hong Kong Government.

Education Society. (1979). 英文中學學生學習情況調查報告 [Report of a Survey on the Learning Situation of Students in Anglo-Chinese Secondary Schools]. Hong Kong: Chinese University.

Eitel, E.J. (1985). Europe in China: The History of Hong Kong from the Beginning to the Year 1882. Hong Kong: Kelly & Walsh Ltd.

Elliott, J. (1978). "What is action-research in schools?" Journal of Curriculum Studies, 10(4): 355-357.

Elliott, J. & MacDonald, B. (1975). People in Classrooms. Occasional Paper No.2. Centre for Applied Research in Education, University of East Anglia.

Ervin-Tripp, S. (1974). "Is Second Language Learning Like the First?" TESOL Quarterly, 8: 111-127.

Faerch, C. & Kasper, G. (eds.) (1983). Strategies in Interlanguage Communication. London: Longman.

Fairbank, J.K. (1971). The United States and China. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Feldman, C.F. (1977). "Two functions of language". Harvard Educational Review, 47(3): 282-293.

Fisher Report. (1951). Hong Kong: Government Press.

Flavell, J. (1963). The Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget. New York: Van Nostrand.

Francis, H. (1975). Language in Childhood: Form and Function in Language Learning. London: Paul Elek.

Freedman, A., Pringle, I. & Yalden, J. (1983). Learning to Write: First Language/Second Language. London: Longman.

Freire, P. (1972). Cultural Action for Freedom. Penguin Education.

Friedlander, A. (1990). "Composing in English: Effects of a first language on writing in English as a second language". In B. Kroll (ed.), Second Language Writing: Research Insights for the Classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fries, C.C. (1962). Linguistics and Reading. Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Froese, V. (1977a). "Child authorship: Process and producing". In C. Braun & V. Froese (eds.), An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading, pp 45-59. Baltimore: University Park Press.

_____ (1977b). "To talk of many things". In C. Braun & V. Froese (eds.), An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading, pp 211-222. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Fu, G.S. (1975). A Hong Kong Perspective: English Language Learning and the Chinese Student. Chicago: University of Michigan Comparative Education Dissertation, Series 28.

Fung, Y.W. (1986). "Education". In J.Y.S. Cheng (ed.), Hong Kong in Transition, pp 300-330. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Gardner, R. & Lambert, W. (1972). Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Galyean, B. (1976). Language from Within: A Handbook of Teaching Strategies for Personal Growth and Self Reflection in the Language Classes. Santa Barbara, Calif.: Confluent Development and Research Centre.

Galyean, B. (1977). "A confluent design for language teaching". TESOL Quarterly, 11(2): 143-156.

Gibbons, J. (1979). "Code-mixing and Koineising in the speech of students at the University of Hong Kong". Anthropological Linguistics, 21(3): 113-123.

_____ (1982). "The issue of the language of instruction in the lower forms of Hong Kong secondary schools". Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 3(2): 117-128.

_____ (1987). Code-Mixing and Code Choice: A Hong Kong Case Study. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Gilliland, J. (1972). Readibility. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Goddard, N. (1974). Literacy: Language-Experience Approaches. London: Macmillan Education Ltd.

Goldstein, L. & Liu, N.F. (1993). "Teaching and learning through English across the curriculum: The design of a Form 1 Bridge Programme". In N. Bird, J. Harris & M. Ingham (eds.), Language and Content, pp 121-131. Hong Kong: Institute of Language in Education.

Goodman, K.S. (1967). "Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game". Paper read at the American Educational Research Association, New York. Reprinted in H. Singer & R. B. Ruddell (eds.), Theoretical Models of Processes of Reading, pp 259-272. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

_____ (ed.) (1968). The Psycholinguistic Nature of the Reading Process. Detroit: Wayne State University Press.

Goodman, K.S. & Goodman, Y.M. (1977). "Learning about psycholinguistic processes by analyzing oral reading". Harvard Educational Review, 47(3): 317-333.

_____ (1978). Reading of American Children whose Language is a Stable Rural Dialect of English or a Language other than English. Final Report, Project NIE-C-00-3-0087.

Goodman, K.S., Goodman, Y.M. & Flores B. (1979). Reading in the Bilingual Classroom: Literacy and Biliteracy. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Goodman, P. (1964). Compulsory MisEducation. New York: Horizon Press.

Goodman, Y.M. (1980). "The Roots of Literacy". In Claremont Reading Conference Yearbook, 44: 1-12.

Graves, D. (1983). Writing: Teachers and Children at Work. Exeter, N.A.: Heinemann Educational.

Guiora, A.Z., Brannon, R.C.L. & Dull, C.Y. (1972). "Empathy and second language learning". Language Learning, 22: 111-130.

H.M.S.O. (1933). Infant and Nursery Schools. Board of Education, Report of the Consultative Committee H.M.S.O.

Hahn, H.T. (1966). "Three approaches to beginning reading instruction -- ITA, Lanugage Arts and Basal Readers". The Reading Teacher, 19(8): 590-594.

Hakuta, K. (1974). "Prefabricated patterns and the emergence of structure in second language acquisition". Language Learning, 24(2): 287-297.

_____ (1976). "Becoming bilingual: A case study of a Japanese child learning English". Language Learning, 26(2): 321- 351.

Hall, M. (1978). The Language Experience Approach for Teaching Reading: A Research Perspective. New Wark, Del.: International Reading Association.

_____ (1981). Teaching Reading as a Language Experience (3rd ed.). Columbus, Ohio: A Bell & Howell Company.

_____ (1985). "Focus on language experience learning and teaching". Reading, 19(1): 5-12.

Hall, M., Moretz, S. & Statom, J. (1976). "Writing before Grade One -- A study of early writers". Elementary English, 53: 582-584.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1973). Explorations in the Functions of Language. London: Edward Arnold.

Harding, D.H. (1967). The New Pattern of Language Teaching. Longman.

Hargreaves, D. (1982). The Challenge for the Comprehensive School. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Harley, B. (1986). Age in Second Language Acquisition. Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Harris, A. & Serwer, B.L. (1966). Comparing Reading Approaches in First Grade Teaching with Disadvantaged Children. Final Report, Cooperative Research Project No.2677. New York: Division of Teacher Education, the City University of New York.

Hatch, E.M. & Long, M. (1974) "Discourse analysis, what is that?" In D. Larsen-Freeman (ed.), Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Hennings, D.G. (1978). Communication in Action: Dynamic Teaching in the Language Arts. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co.

Hennings, D.G. & Grant, B. (1973). Content & Craft: Written Expression in the Elementary School. N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Herrick, V.E. & Nerbovig, M. (1964). Using Experience Charts with Children. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Book Inc.

Heyde, A. (1977). "The relationship between self-esteem and the oral production of a second language". In H.D. Brown, C. Yario, & R. Crymes (eds.), Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language: Trends in Research and Practice, pp.226-240. Washington: TESOL.

Hildreth, G. (1965). "Experience-related reading for school beginners". Elementary English, 42: 280-297.

Ho, K.K. 賀國強 (1983). " 中學會考有捷徑嗎？ " [Any short-cuts to the School Certificate Exam?]. In 突破雜誌 [Breakthrough], 108: 5-6.

_____ (1986). "The effect of written languages in Chinese or English on F.1 social studies achievement". In Hong Kong Educational Research Journal, 1: 16-21.

_____ (1987a). "The effect of written and spoken second language on science achievement". New Horizons (Journal of Education, Hong Kong Teachers' Association), 28: 117-128.

_____ (1987b). Imminent Problems of Education in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Chinese University Press.

_____ (1992). " "
[The experience of implementing mother tongue education in secondary schools]. In K.K. Luk (ed.), Into the Twenty First Century: Issues of Language in Education in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Linguistic Society of Hong Kong.

Holdaway, D. (1979). The Foundations of Literacy. Sydney: Ashton Scholastic.

Holden, S. (1981). Drama in Language Teaching. Longman.

Holt, J. (1982). How Children Fail (Revised and expanded edition). Penguin.

Hong Kong Government (1965). Education Policy (White Paper). Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1973). Report of the Board of Education on the Proposed Expansion of Secondary School Education in Hong Kong over the Next Decade. Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1974). Secondary Education in Hong Kong over the Next Decade (White Paper). Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1984a). Hong Kong 1984 (Annual Report of Hong Kong). Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1984b). A Draft Agreement between the Government of United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Government of the People's Republic of China on the Future of Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1986). Hong Kong 1986 (Annual Report of Hong Kong). Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1987). Hong Kong 1987 (Annual Report of Hong Kong). Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1988). Hong Kong 1988 (Annual Report of Hong Kong). Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1991). Hong Kong 1991 (Annual Report of Hong Kong). Hong Kong: Government Press.

_____ (1993). Hong Kong 1993 (Annual Report of Hong Kong). Hong Kong: Government Press.

Hong Kong Government Office (1986, November 23). News Digest.

Hong Kong Council of Social Services (1973). Comments on the Report of the Board of Education on the proposed Expansion of Secondary School Education in Hong Kong over the Next Decade.

Hopkins, D. (1985). Action Research for Teachers. O.U.P.

Horn, E.V. (1937). Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies. New York: Scribner's.

Householder, F.W. (1971). Linguistic Speculations. London: Cambridge University Press.

Huang, J. & Hatch, E.M. (1978). "A Chinese child's acquisition of English". In E.M. Hatch (ed.), Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Readings. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Hult, M. & Lennung, S. (1980). "Towards a definition of action-research : A note and bibliography". Journal of Management Studies, 17(2): 241- 250.

Hunter, D.B. (1974). "Bilingualism and Hong Kong English". The Educationalist, 5: 15-18.

Hustler, D.; Cassidy, A. & Cuff, E.C. (eds.) (1986). Action Research in Classrooms and Schools. London: Allen & Unwin.

Hýmes, D. (1974). Foundations in sociolinguistics: An ethnographic approach. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Illich, I. (1971). Deschooling Society. Penguin.

Jarvie, I.C. & Agassi, J. (eds.) (1969). Hong Kong: A Society in Transition. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul for the International Library of Sociology and Social Reconstruction.

Jersild, A.T. (1957). The Psychology of Adolescence. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Johnson, D. & Myklebust, H. (1967). Learning Disabilities: Educational Principles and Practices. New York: Grune and Stratton.

Johnson, K. (1983). "Communicative writing practice and Aristotelian rhetoric". In A. Freedman, I. Pringle, & J. Talden (eds.), Learning to Write: First Language/Second Language, pp 247-257. London: Longman.

_____ (1984). Modes of Instruction: Teaching Strategies and Student Responses. University of Hong Kong: Faculty of Education.

Johnson, K. & Lee, P. (1987). "Modes of instruction: teaching strategies and students responses". In R. Lord & H.N.L. Cheng (eds.), Language Education in Hong Kong, pp 99-121. Hong Kong: The Chinese University Press.

Junker, B.H. (1960). Field work: An introduction to the social sciences. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kelly, A. (1985). "Action research: What is it and what can it do?" In R.G. Burgess (ed.), Issues in Educational Research, pp. 129-151. London: The Falmer Press.

Kemmis, S. (1994). "Action research". Paper prepared for Húsen, T. & Postlethwaite, N. (eds.), International Encyclopedia of Education: Research and Studies. London: Pergamon Press.

Kendrick, W. M. (1966). "A Comparative Study of Two First Grade Language Arts Programmes". The Reading Teacher, 20(1): 25-30.

Kennedy, K. & Roeder, S. (1973). A Guide to Using Language Experience with Adults. Cambridge, Mass.: Community Learning Centre.

Keswick Report. (1952). Hong Kong: Government Press.

Kellermann, M. (1981). The Forgotten Third Skill: Reading a Foreign Language. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

King, R. (1977). Educational Careers in Hong Kong 1977. Annual Report of the Appointments Board, University of Hong Kong.

Kohl, H. (1973). Reading, How to. Penguin Education.

Krashen, S.D. (1981a). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

_____ (1981b). "Aptitudes and attitude in relation to second language acquisition and learning". In K.C. Diller (ed.), Individual Differences and Universals in Language Learning Aptitude, pp 155-175. Newbury House.

_____ (1982). Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

_____ (1985). The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications. London: Longman.

Kwan, K.M. (1990). An Evaluation of Students' Language Difficulties in Using History and Integrated Science Materials in Form 1 in an Anglo-Chinese Secondary School. M.Ed. thesis, University of Hong Kong.

Kwo, O. (1987). "Language Policies in Hong Kong Secondary Education: Alternative Strategies". Education Journal (The Chinese University), 15(1): pp 85-93.

Kwok, S.T. 郭少棠 (1981). "從「中文成為法定語文運動」到「第二次中文運動」" [From `Chinese as the Official Language Campaign' to `The Second Chinese Campaign']. In J.Y.S. Cheng 鄭宇碩 (ed.), 八十年代的香港：轉型期的社會 [Hong Kong in the 1980's-- A Society in Transition], pp 57-75. Hong Kong: University Publisher.

Kvan E. (1969). "Problems of bilingual milieu in Hong Kong: Strain of the two language system". In I.C. Jarvie & J. Agassi (eds.), Hong Kong: A Society in Transition, pp 327-343. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

La Forge, P.G. (1983). Counselling and Culture in Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Lambert, W.E. & Tucker, G.R. (1972). Bilingual Education of Children: The St. Lambert Experiment. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Lau, C.K. & Yeung, L. (1990, May 19). "School makes switch away from Chinese". In South China Morning Post, p.5.

Lay, N. (1982). "Composing processes of adult ESL learners: A case study". TESOL Quarterly, 19: 515-534.

Lee, D.M. & Allen, R.V. (1963). Learning to Read Through Experience (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Lee, G.H.G. (1974). An Enquiry into the Cultural Values to Form Five Students, with Special Reference to Certain Sociological and Educational Issues Facing Hong Kong Adolescents. Master's Dissertation, Department of Education, University of Hong Kong.

Lees, R. (1975). "The action-research relationship". In R. Lees & G. Smith (eds.), Action Research in Community Development. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Levelt, W.J.M. (1978). "Skill theory and language teaching". Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 1(1): 53-70.

Lewin, K. (1946). "Action research and minority problems". Journal of Social Issues, 2: 34-46.

Lerner, J.W. (1976). Children with Learning Disabilities. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Linguistic Society of Hong Kong. (1991). "Education Commission Report No.4: A Response". In K.K. Luk (ed.), Issues of Language in Education in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Linguistic Society of Hong Kong.

Littlewood, W. (1984). Foreign and Second Language Learning: Language Acquisition Research and its Implications for the Classroom. Cambridge University Press.

Liu, C.C. (1987). "Language needs in Hong Kong: bilingualism to trilingualism". The Linguist, 26(1): 39-43.

Llewellyn, J., Hancock, G., Kirst, M. & Roeloffs, D. (1982). A Perspective of Education in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Government Press.

Loban, W.D. (1963). The Language of Elementary School Children. Research Report No.1. Champaign, Illinios: National Council of Teachers of English.

Lord, R. (1987). "Language policy and planning in Hong Kong: past, present and (especially) future". In R. Lord & H.N.L. Cheng (eds.), Language Education in Hong Kong, pp 3-24. Hong Kong: The Chinese Universtiy Press.

Loveday, L. (1982). The Sociolinguistics of Learning and Using a Non-native Language. Oxford: Pergamon Institute of English.

Luke, K.K. 陸鏡光 (1992). "混合語 和 双語教學 " [Mixed code and bilingual Education]. In K.K. Luke (ed.), Into the Twenty First Century: Issues of Language in Education in Hong Kong, pp 109-117. Hong Kong: Linguistic Society of Hong Kong.

Luke K.K. & Richards, J.C. (1982). "English in Hong Kong: Functions and status". English World-wide: A Journal of Varieties of English, 3(1): 47-64.

Macnamara, J. (1967). "The effects of instruction in a weaker language". Journal of Social Issues, 23(2): 121-135.

_____ (1972). "Cognitive basis of language learning in infants". Psychological Review, 79: 1-13.

Maley, A. & Duff, A. (1982). Drama Techniques in Langauge Learning (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Mallett, W.G. (1975). A comparative study of the LEA with Junior High native Indian students. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Arizona State University.

Man C.Y. 文崇一 (1972). " 從價值取向 說中国 国民性 " [Chinese national character as seen from their value-orientation]. In Y.Y. Li 李亦園 & K.S. Yang 楊国枢(eds.), 中国人的性格 [Symposium on the Character of the Chinese], pp 47-78. Taipei: Institute of Ethnology Academia Sinica, Monograph Series B, No.4.

Marita, M. (1965). A Comparative Study of Beginning Reading Achievement under Three Classroom Organisational Patterns: Modified Individualized, Three-to-Five Groups, and Whole Class Language Experience. Co-operative Research Project No. 2659, U.S.Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Marsh, R.M. & Sampson, J.R. (1963). Report of Education Commission. Hong Kong: Government Press.

Maslow, A.H. (1970). Motivation and Personality (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

McCanne, R. (1966). "Approaches to First Grade English reading instruction for children from Spanish speaking homes". The Reading Teacher, 19: 670-675.

McLaughlin, B. (1978). Second Language Acquisition in Childhood. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Mendenhall, B.J. (1973). Developing Self-Acceptance and Reading Achievement among Second Grade Chicano Children. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Arizona State University.

Meriam, J.L. (1933). "An activity curriculum in a school of Mexican children". Jounral of Experimental Education, 1: 304-308.

Merriam, S.B. (1988). Case Study Research in Education: A Qualitative Approach. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Miller, W.H. (1968). "A Critical Appraisal of the Language Experience Approach to Reading". In W. H. Miller (ed.), Elementary Reading Today: Selected Articles, pp 72-77. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1972.

Mills, F. et al. (1977). Bilingual-Bicultural Education in the Classroom: A Handbook of Ideas for the Teacher. ERIC, ED 146 794.

Modiano, N. (1968). "National or Mother Tongue in Beginning Reading: A Comparative Study". Research in the Teaching of English, 1: 32-43.

Mok, K. 莫凱(1981). "經濟與工業多元化的問題 "[The Issue of Economic and Industrial Diversification]. In J.Y.S. Cheng 鄭宇碩 (ed.), 八十年代的香港：轉型期的社會 [Hong Kong in the 1980's: A Society in Transition], pp 127-154. HongKong: University Publisher & Printer.

Monroe, M. (1971). "Co-ordinating reading with the other language arts". In V. Southgate (ed.), Literacy at All Levels, pp 26-33. U.K. Reading Association.

Morgan, J. & Rinvolucri M. (1983). Once Upon a Time. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

_____ (1986). Vocabulary. Oxford University Press.

Morris, R. (1972). "The Language Experience Approach today: reappraisal and development". In V. Southgate (ed.), Literacy at All Levels, pp 42-48. U.K. Reading Association.

Moustafa, M. & Penrose, J. (1985). "Comprehensible input PLUS the Language Experience Approach: Reading instruction for limited English speaking students". The Reading Teacher, March: 640-

_____ (1987). "Comprehensive input PLUS the Language Experience Approach: A longterm perspective". The Reading Teacher, 41(3): 276-286.

Myers, R.E. & Torrance, E.P. (1965). Teachers Guide, Invitations to Speaking and Writing Creatively. Boston: Ginn and Company.

Nisbet, J. (1975). "Innovation -- bandwagon or hearse?" In A. Harris, M. Lawn & W. Prescott (eds.), Curriculum Innovation, pp 1-14. Croom Helm.

_____ (1980). "Educational research: The state of the art". In W. B. Dockreel & D.Hamilton (eds.), Rethinking Educational Research. Sevenoaks: Hodder & Stoughton.

Nixon, J. (ed.) (1981a). A Teachers' Guide to Action Research: Evaluation, Enquiry and Development in the Classroom. London: Grant Mcintyre.

_____ (1981b). "Classroom concerns". In J. Nixon (ed.), A Teachers' Guide to Action Research: Evaluation , Enquiry and Development in the Classroom, pp.13-14. London: Grant Mcintyre.

Oller, J., Beca, L. & Vigil, A. (1977a). "Attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL: A sociolinguistic study of Mexican Americans in the Southwest". TESOL Quarterly, 11: 173-183.

Oller, J., Hudson, P. & Liu, P. (1977b). "Attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL: A sociolinguistic study of native speakers of Chinese in the United States". Language Learning, 27(1): 1-28.

Olshin, D. (1977). "Language experience for the culturally and linguistically different child". In C. Braun & V.Froese (eds.) An Experience-Based Approach to Language and Reading, pp 113-138. Baltimore: University Park Press.

Oppenheim, A.N. (1992). Questionnaire Design, Interviewing, and Attitude Measurement. London: Pinter Publisher.

Pan, L. (1979, September 7). "Hong Kong: Chimera of Bilingualism". Asiaweek, pp 30-31.

People's Republic of China Government. (1990). The Basic Law of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of the People's Republic of China.

Pennington, M.C. & Yue, F. (1994). "English and Chinese in Hong Kong: pre-1997 language attitudes". World Englishes, 13(1): 1-20.

Piaget, J. (1965). The Language and Thought of the Child. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Pierson, H.D., Fu, G.S. & Lee, S.Y. (1980). "An analysis of the relationships between language attitude and language attainment of secondary students in Hong Kong". Language Learning, 30: 289-316.

Pfeiffer, J.W. & Jones, J.E. (eds.) (1978). Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training. La Jolla, CA: University Associates.

Podmore, D. (1971). "The population of Hong Kong". In K. Hopkins (ed.), Hong Kong: the Industrial Colony, pp 21-54. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Pollard, A. (1985). "Opportunities and difficulties of a teacher-ethnographer". In R. G. Burgess (ed.), Field Methods in the Study of Education, pp.217-233. London: The Falmer Press.

Popper, K. (1976). Unended Quest. London: Fontana/Collins.

Poon, S.K. (1978). An Investigation of the Language Difficulties Experienced by Hong Kong Primary School Leavers in Learning Mathematics through the Medium of English. Unpublished M. Phil. Thesis, University of Hong Kong.

Postovsky, V.A. (1974). "Effects of delay in oral practice at the beginning of second language learning". Modern Language Journal, 58(5- 6): 229-239.

Purkey, W. (1970). Self Concept and School Achievement. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Prator, C.H. (1964). "English as a second language: Teaching". Overseas, 3.

Quandt, I.J. (1973). Teaching Reading: A Human Process. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Co.

Raimes, A. (1983). "English as a second language? Remedies for composition teachers". In A. Freedman, I. Pringle & J. Yalden (eds.), Learning to Write: First Language/Second Language, pp 258-272. London: Longman.

Rapoport, R. N. (1970). "Three dilemmas in action research". Human Relations, 23: 499-513.

Reed, D.W. (1970). "A theory of language, speech and writing" in H. Singer, & R.B. Ruddell (eds.), Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, pp 219-238. International Reading Association.

Reynolds, P.D. (1984). "The language medium: Interrelated issues". New Horizon, 25: 66-73.

Rigg, P. (1977). Beginning to Read in English the LEA Way. Guide prepared at the State University of New York at Albany.

Ripple, R., Jaquish, G., Lee, H.W. & Salili, F. (1984). "Cognitive and affective costs of bilingual education: A look at the Hong Kong experience". New Horizons, 25: 74- 80.

Rivers, W.M. (1964). The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher. University of Chicago Press.

_____ (1983). Communicating Naturally in a Second Language: Theory and Practice in Language Teaching. Cambridge University Press.

Roberts, G.L. (1972). "Spoken language and learning to read". In V. Southgate (ed.), Literacy at All Levels, pp 34-41. U.K. Reading Association.

Rogers, C.R. (1962). "Toward becoming a fully functioning person". In A.W. Combs (ed.), Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Ruddell, R.B. (1967). "Reading instruction in First Grade with varying emphasis on the regularity of grapheme-phoneme correspondences and the relation of language structure to meaning -- extended into Second Grade." The Reading Teacher, 20: 731.

_____ (1970). "Language acquisition and the reading process". In H. Singer & R.B. Ruddell (eds.), Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading, pp. 1-19. International Reading Association, Inc.

Rudduck, J. (1985). "A case for case records?: A discussion of some aspects of Lawrence Stenhouse's work in case study methodology". In R.G. Burgess (eds.), Strategies of Educational Research: Qualitative Methods, pp. 101-119. London: The Falmer Press.

Scarcella, R.C. (1978). "Socio drama for social interactions". TESOL Quarterly, 12(1): 41-46.

SCDC Publications (1985 - 1988). About Writing, the SCDC National Writing Project Newsletter.

Schumann, J.H. (1978). "The acculturation model for second-language acquisition". In R.C. Gingras (ed.), Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching, pp 27-50. Centre for Applied Linguistics.

Searle, J.R. (1971). "What is a speech act?". In J.R. Searle (ed.), The Philosophy of Language. London: Oxford University Press.

Seliger, H. (1977). "Does practice make perfect? A study of interaction patterns and L2 competence." Language Learning, 27: 263-273.

Sejavaara, K. (1978). "The monitor model and monitoring in foreign language speech communication". In R.C. Gingras (ed.), Second Langauge Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching, pp.51-67. Centre for Applied Linguistics.

Serwer, B.L. (1969). "Linguistic support for a method of teaching beginning reading to Black children" Reading Research Quarterly, 7: 449-467.

Shipman, M. (1981). The Limitations of Social Research. London: Methuen.

Silver, H. (1983). Education as History. London: Methuen.

Sit, V.F.S. (1981). "Post-War pupolation and its spatial dynamics". In V.F.S. Sit (ed.), Urban Hong Kong, pp. 2-25. Hong Kong: Summerson Eastern Publishers Ltd.

Skilbeck, M. (1983). "Lawrence Stenhouse: Research methodology". British Educational Research Journal, 9(1): 11-20.

So, D. (1992). "Language-based bifurcation of secondary education in Hong Kong: past, present and future". In K.K. Luke (ed.), Into the Twenty First Century: Issues of Language in Education in Hong Kong, pp 69-95. Hong Kong: Linguistic Society of Hong Kong.

Siu, P.K. 蕭炳基 (1981). "從教育語言談到香港教育改革". [From the language of instruction to the revision in education in Hong Kong]. 明報月刊 [Ming Pao Monthly], March: 35-39.

Siu, P.K., Cheng, S.C., Hinton, A, Cheng, Y.N., Lo, L.F., Luk, H.K., Chung, Y.P. & Hsia, Y.S. (1979). The Effects of the Medium of Instruction on Student Cognitive Development and Academic Achievement. School of Education, Chinese University of Hong Kong.

Skinner, B.F. (1957). Verbal Behaviour. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts.

Smith, B. (1983). "Silent conversation: Observations of secondary pupils using a Language Experience Approach to reading". B. Gillham (ed.), Reading Through the Curriculum, pp 137-142. U.K. Reading Association.

Smith, F. (1973). Psycholinguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

_____ (1977). "Making sense of reading -- And of reading instruction". Harvard Educational Review, 47(3): 386-395.

Smith, L.M. (1978). "An evolving logic of participant observation, educational ethnography and other case studies". In L. Schulman (ed.), Review of Research in Education. Chicago: Peacock.

Smith, R.J. & Johnson, D.D. (1980). Teaching Children to Read (2nd ed.). Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Spache, G.D. & Spache, E.B. (1969). Reading in the Elementary School. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Spitzer, R. (1975). "Taking the pressure off". Journal of Reading, 19: 198-200.

Squire, J.B. (1983). "Instructional focus and the teaching of writing". In A. Freedman, I. Pringle & J. Yalken (eds.), Learning to Write: First Language/Second Language, pp 227-236. London: Longman.

Stauffer, M.A. (1973). "Comparative effects of a Language Arts Approach and Basal Reader Approach to First Grade reading achievement". In R.G. Stauffer (Compiler and Author), Action Research in L.E.A. Instructional Procedures, pp 205-226. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware.

Stauffer, R.G. (1969). Teaching Reading as a Thinking Process. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers.

_____ (1972). "Dictated experience stories". In A. Melnik & J. Merritt (eds.), The Reading Curriculum, pp 154-182. The Open University.

_____ (1975). Directing the Reading-Thinking Process. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

_____ (1976). Action Research in L.E.A. Instructional Procedures. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware.

_____ (1980). The Language-Experience Approach to the Teaching of Reading (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

Stauffer, R.G. & Cramer R.L. (1967). "Reading specialists in an occupational training programme". The Reading Teacher, 20: 525-531.

Stauffer, R.G. & Hammond, W.D. (1966). "Effectiveness of a Language Arts and Basic Reader Appraoch to First Grade reading instruction". In R. G. Stauffer (Compiler and Author), Action Research in L.E.A. Instructional Procedures, pp 19-80. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware.

Stauffer, R.G., Hammond, W.D., Oehlkers, W.J. & Houseman, A. (1971). "Effectiveness of a Language Arts and Basic Reader Approach to First Grade reading instruction -- Extended into Sixth Grade". In R. G. Stauffer (Compiler and Author), Action Research in L.E.A. Instructional Procedures, pp. 165-204. Newark, Delware: University of Delaware, 1976.

Stenhouse, L. (1985a). "What counts as research?" In J. Rudduck & D. Hopkins (eds.), Researh as a Basis for Teaching: readings from the work of Lawrence Stenhouse, pp. 8-19. London: Heinemann Educaional Books Ltd.

_____ (1985b). "Action research and the teacher's responsibility for the educational process". In J. Rudduck & D. Hopkins (eds.), Readings from the Work of Lawrence Stenhouse, pp. 56-59. London: Heinemann Educational Books.

_____ (1985c). "The Case-Study Tradition and how Case Studies Apply to Practice". In J. Rudduck & D. Hopkins (eds.), Reading from the Work of Lawrence Stenhouse, pp.52-55. London: Heinemann Educaional Books.

Stern, H.H. (1965). Perspectives on Second Language Teaching, Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

_____ (1972). "Introduction". In M. Swain (ed.), Bilingual Schooling: Some Experience in Canada and the United States. Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Stevick, E.W. (1980). Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Stocker, D.S. (1971). Responses to the Langauge Approach Reading by Black, culturally different inner city students experiencing reading disabilities in Grades Five and Eleven. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Indiana University.

Stoddart, J. & Stoddart, F. (1968). Teaching English to Immigrant Children. University of London Press.

Strang, B.M.H. (1970). A History of English. London: Methuen.

Stubbs, M. (1980). Language and Literacy, The Sociolinguistics of Reading and Writing. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

South China Morning Post. (1989, March 7). "Universities opt for joint entry". South China Morning Post, p 5.

Sweeting, A. (1990). Education in Hong Kong Pre-1981 to 1941: Fact and Opinion. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Tam, T.K. (1980). "A survey of the language mode used in teaching junior Forms in Anglo-Chinese secondary schools in Hong Kong". RELC Journal, 11(1): 43-60.

Tarone, E., Cohen, A.D. & Dumas, G. (1983). "A closer look at some interlanguage terminology: a framework for communication strategies". In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (eds.), Strategies in Interlanguage Communication, pp. 4-14. London: Longman.

Tatham, S.M. (1970). "Reading comprehension of materials written with selected oral language patterns: A study of Grades Two and Four". Reading Research Quarterly, 5: 402-426.

Teaching Through Learning (1978). Vol.16.

Terrell, T.D. (1977). "A Natural Approach to second language acquisition and learning". Modern Language Journal, 61: 325-337.

Thonis, E.W. (1970). Teaching Reading to Non-English Speakers. New York: Collier-Macmillan International.

Thorn, E.A. (1974). "Integration of the Language Arts and the prevention of disability in beginning reading". Manitoba Journal of Education, pp 24-28.

Torrance, E.P. & Myers, R.E. (1970). Creative Learning and Teaching. New York: Harper & Row Publisher.

Tse, K.K. 謝永堅(1982). "分析香港的教育政策"[An analysis of Hong Kong's educational policy], In Hong Kong Federation of Students (ed.), 香港教育透視 [A Perspective of Hong Kong Education], pp 37-55. Hong Kong: Wide Angle.

Tsui, A.B.M. (1992). "Using English as a medium of instruction and English language acquisition". In K.K. Luke (ed.), Into the Twenty First Century: Issues of Language in Education in Hong Kong, pp 135-145. Hong Kong: Linguistic Society of Hong Kong.

Veatch, J., Sawicki, F., Elliott, G., Flake, E., Blakey, J. (1979). Key Words to Reading: Language Experience Approach Begins (2nd ed.). Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co..

Via, R.A. (1975). "English through drama". English as a Foreign Language, 13(1-2): 158-162.

Vilscek, E.C. (1968). "What research has shown about the Language-Experience Programme". In E.C. Vilscek (ed.), A Decade of Innovations: Approaches to Beginning Reading, 12(3): 9-23. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Vilscek, E., Morgan, L. & Cleland, D. (1966). "Coordinating and integrating Language Arts Instruction in First Grade". The Reading Teacher, 20(1): 31-37.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). Thought and Language (E. Haufmann & C. Vakan, Trans.). Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Walker, R.; MacDonald, B.; Elliott, J. & Adelman, C. (eds.) (1976). Curriculum Design and Development: Innovation, the School and the Teacher (1). Open University Press.

Wallace, C. (1986). Learning to Read in a Multilingual Society: The Social Context of Second Language Literacy. Oxford Pergamon Institute of English.

Walton, G. (1986). "Critical Partners" in About Writing (The SCDC National Writing Project Newsletter), 3: 12-13.

Weinreich, U. (1963). Languages in Contact: Findings and Problems. The Hague: Mouton & Co.

Wells, G. (1981). Learning through Interaction: The Study of Language Development. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

_____ (1986). The Meaning Makers. Hodder & Stoughton.

Wells, T.M. (1975). An Investigation Designed to Test the Feasibility of Using Visual Literacy Techniques and the LEA to Reading to Develop the Reading Abilities of Remedial 4th Grade Readers. Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University.

Wesley-Smith, P. (1980). Unequal Treaty, 1898-1997: China, Great Britain and Hong Kong's New Territories. Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H.G. (1983). "New starts and different kinds of failure". In A. Freedman, I. Pringle, & J. Yalden (eds.), Learning to Write: First Language/Second Language, pp 34-48. London: Longman.

Wilson, H. (1985, February 15). "Mother's tongue still losing out to Chinglish". TES, p.17.

Wilson, R.M. & Parkey, N. (1970). "A modified reading programme in a middle school". Journal of Reading, 13: 447-552.

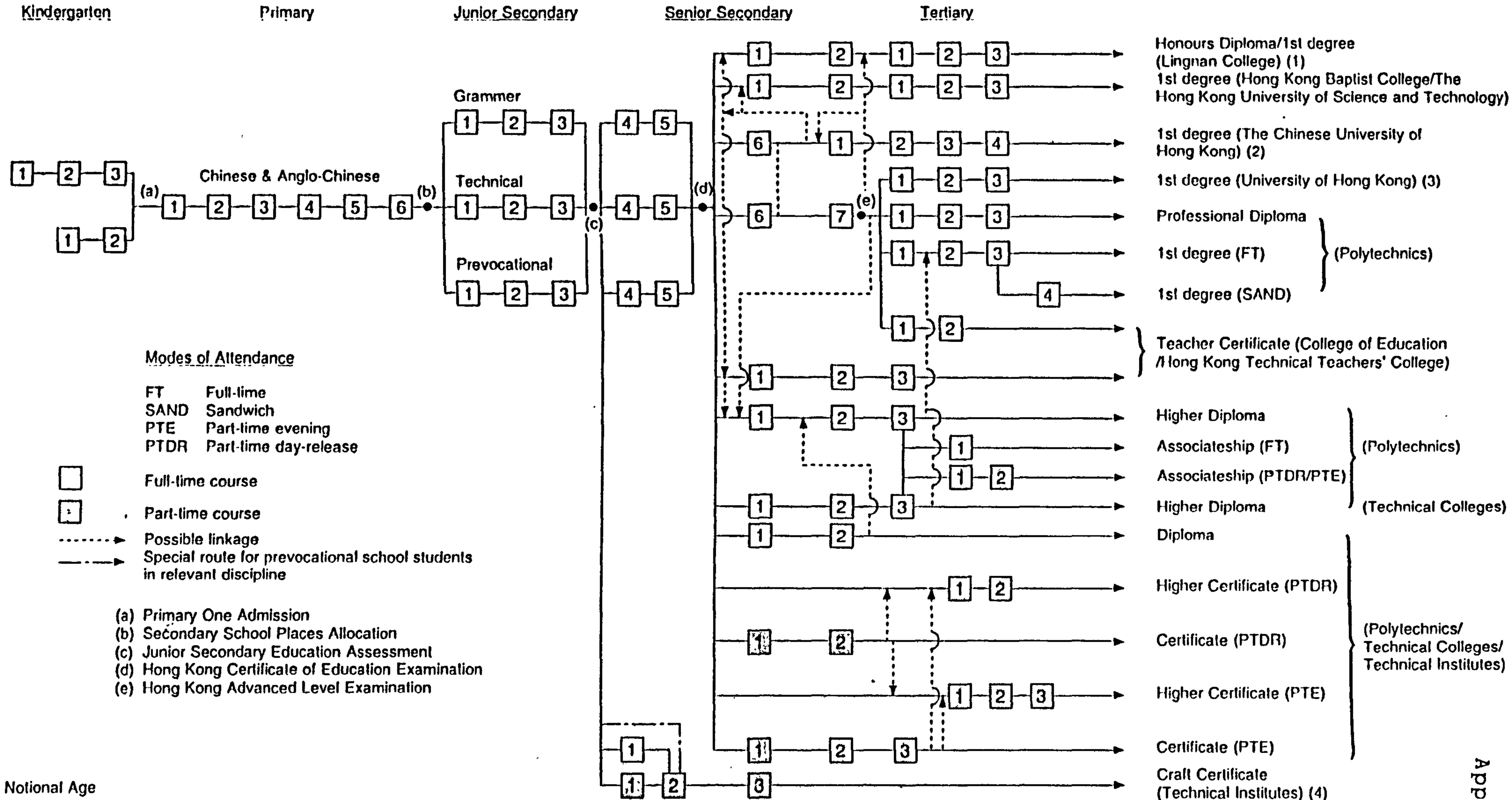
Wrightsone, J.W. (1951). "Research related to experience records and basal readers". Bulletin of the International Council for Improvement of Reading Instruction, 5: 5-12.

Yau, S.C. (1992). "Language policies in post-1997 Hong Kong". In K.K. Luke (ed.), Into the Twenty First Century: Issues of Language in Education in Hong Kong, pp 15-29. Hong Kong: Linguistic Society of Hong Kong.

Yu, K.于貴 (1977). "香港學生學英語的精神負担 "[The psychological pressure of students learning English in Hong Kong]. Living Education, 8: 14-15.

A P P E N D I C E S

The Hong Kong Education System (1992/93)



Notes:
(1) The Hong Kong Shue Yan College, an Assisted Approved Post Secondary College, offers 4 year courses, the minimum entry requirement of which, in terms of the Post Secondary Colleges Regulations, is successful completion of Secondary V.
(2) 1st degree in medicine requires 5 years of study.
(3) B.A. (Bldg) requires 4 years of study while B.A. (Arch.) and M.B.B.S. require 5 years of study.
(4) Student with craft certificate may enrol in the Technician Course after the completion of a bridging course which lasts for a minimum of one year.

G. Ma S. W. Lee
M. Cam Agnes N.

True Light Middle School of Hong Kong

Teaching Plan 1989-1990

Classes : Form 1

Subject : English

I. Textbooks :

1. New Integrated English Book 1
   New Integrated English Workbook Book 1
2. New Integrated Listening Comprehension Book 1
3. New Integrated English Progress Tests Book 1
4. Readers : Jane Eyre
   New Secondary Readers for Hong Kong Book 1
   Graded Secondary Readers Book 1

II. Allocation of Periods in a Cycle (10 periods)

Function and structure	2 periods
Comprehension	2 periods
Dictation	1 period
Listening/Oral	1 period
Reader	1 period
Composition	1 period
ETV	1 period

III. Examination Marking Scheme

General English	50%
Composition	30%
Oral	10%
Dictation	10%

IV. Marking Scheme for Composition

Content	10 marks
Accuracy	20 marks
	Total 30 marks

Cycle	Theme	Function & Structure	I.E.	Comprehension	Composition	Oral/Listening	ETV
13,14	(Christmas Holidays, revision and examination)						
15,16	Entertainment	Past tense/telephone conversation/infinitive of purpose	10	At the cinema A birthday party (Sit. Voc.)	My birthday party	Plain Speaking 10 Plain Speaking 11	20. Cooking
17		Going to/because/direction	6	Sally's day out			14. Out & about in H.K.
18		Future tense/want/hope to/ want me to	8	Can I help you?	Picture Comp.	Listening 8	
19		frequency adverbs	9	Saturday evenings The youth club		Listening 9 Plain Speaking 9,18	16. Only once a week
20	Weather	Test(competition)		A day in the country (Sit. Voc.)	A picnic		5. Oh! That day at the Ocean Park
21	(Easter Holiday)						
22		Present perfect tense/ letter writing	5	A letter	A letter	Listening 5 Plain Speaking 19	
23		Present perfect/past tense	12,5	Susan's reply Success story	A story	Plain Speaking 20	6. Questions
24		Asking for/giving instruction	12	A family reunion		Listening 12	13. Martin as a waiter
25	Shopping	Likes and preference/Which one?/made of	14	Shopping	Shopping	Listening 14	9. Clothes
26	Interesting places in H.K.	Describing places/Project work	13	A guided tour	Interesting places in H.K.	Listening 13	18. Tourism in H.K.
27	Revision, examination						

Quesionnaire at the beginning of first term (Pilot Study)

Appendix 3

Read each statement below and put an X against the answer that is true to you.

1. I often ___ / sometimes ___ / seldom ___ read English books in my leisure.

2. I'm very satisfied ___ / satisfied ___ with my academic performance in general. / very dissatisfied ___

3. I like ___ / don't specially like or dislike ___ / dislike ___ English lessons.

4. Compared to my classmates, my English standard is above average ___ / average ___ / below average ___ .

5. Learning English has a significant ___ / some ___ / an insignificant ___ influence on my future.

6. My parents often ___ / sometimes ___ / seldom ___ encourage me to learn English well.

7. I would like ___ / don't specially like or dislike ___ / would not like ___ to make friends with English speaking people.

8. I often ___ / sometimes ___ / seldom ___ listen to English songs.

9. I often ___ / sometimes ___ / seldom ___ work hard in English.

10. I think learning English is an easy thing ___. / not too difficult nor easy ___. / a difficult thing ___.

Questionnaire at the end of second term (Pilot Study)

Appendix 4

Read each statement below and put an X against the answer that is true to you.

1. often ( )
I sometimes ( ) read English books in my leisure.
seldom ( )

2. very satisfied ( )
I'm satisfied ( ) with my academic performance in general.
very dissatisfied ( )

3. like ( )
I don't specially like or dislike ( ) English lessons.
dislike ( )

4. above average ( )
Compared to my classmates, my English standard is average ( ).
below average ( )

5. often ( )
I sometimes ( ) work hard in English.
seldom ( )

6. an easy thing ( )
I think learning English is not too difficult nor easy ( )
a difficult thing ( )

7. like ( )
I don't specially like or dislike ( ) to make friends with English speaking people.
dislike ( )

8. like ( )
I don't specially like or dislike ( ) our English text book.
dislike ( )

9. like ( )
I don't specially like or dislike ( ) the individual conference.
dislike ( )

10. some progress ( )
I think I have little progress ( ) in English this year.
done worse ( )

Thank you for your co-operation. Could you write in the space below your feelings, opinions and suggestions about the teaching of English you have this year:

Appendix 5

Note to Parents on Method of Composition Correction

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

The marking of students' written work in this term will mainly be based on a scheme of selective focus. This means only the mistakes of certain language form(s) will be marked by the teacher each time. The purpose of this is to focus the students' attention selectively according to their level and needs, and also the purpose and nature of the task.

2L-LEA-related Work Produced by Students at the Piloting Stage

- Places of Interest
- An Interview with a Tourist
- Expressing the Use of Different Objects
- Making Comparisons
- An Introduction to Liverpool
- Comparison of Two Flats
- Quiz

Places of Interest

Plan a one day trip for a friend who is visiting Hong Kong.

Pop Club

First, we will go to the Peak Restaurant for breakfast. Then we will take the peak tram to Central. We will take the Star ferry to Tsim Sha Tsui, go to the Space Museum and do some shopping.

At lunch time, we will go to Causeway Bay by M.T.R. We will have lunch at Food Street and go to Tiger Balm Garden by bus. Then we will go shopping at Stanley Market. We will have our dinner at an Aberdeen floating restaurant. After that we will visit the racecourse at Happy Valley by taxi. Finally, we will go to the open-air night market to have some evening snacks. After that, we will go back to the hotel.

Diana

First, I will take her to a Chinese restaurant to eat our breakfast. Then we will go to the Tiger Balm Garden. It is because the pagoda, statues and buildings there are very interesting and vivid.

In the afternoon, we will go to Miu Fat Monsatery to enjoy a vegetarian lunch and to have a walk.

At night, we will go to an Aberdeen floating restaurant to have seafood for dinner.

Sophia

1. Breakfast: to try some Chinese food at a Chinese restaurant.
2. Morning: Tiger Balm Garden -- it is an interesting place.
3. Lunch: The Peak's restaurant — can see all of Hong Kong.
4. Afternoon: Sung Dynasty Village -- can see many examples of ancient Chinese culture and customs.
5. Dinner: Watertour around the harbour — can see Hong Kong at night.

Felix's Girls

1. Hopewell Revolving Restaurant: it is because the restaurant's food is very special.
2. Causeway Bay: it is because there are many shopping centres.
3. Food Street: it is because we can choose foods of different countries.
4. Tai Koo Shing: it is because there are many shops.
5. Central: it is because there are many shopping centres.
6. The Peak Tram: it is because we can enjoy the scenery.
7. Aberdeen floating restaurant: it is because it is very special.
8. Go back to the hotel: we are very tired.

An Interview with a Tourist 30.1.89

Greeting

Excuse me. Do you speak English?

We are students of True Light Middle School of Hong Kong, the school over there. We are doing a project on interviewing tourists. Could you spare a few minutes to answer some questions?/ Would you mind if we ask you some questions?

Asking for Information

Would you mind telling me your name, please?

Could you spell it for me, please? / Please spell it.

Where do you come from?

What is your nationality?

Why do you come to Hong Kong?

How many times have you been to Hong Kong?

Do you like Hong Kong? Why?/ What do you like most?
What don't you like?

What other places have you been?

Who come with you?

Have you bought any souvenirs? (post cards, embroidery, handicrafts, toys)

What do you do?/What is your job?

How long will you stay here?

Closing

Thank you very much.

It's nice to talk to you.

We hope you'll have a nice trip, Goodbye.

**** ****

27.1.89

Expressing the use of different objects:

1. I use a fan to make me cool. I cool myself down with a fan.
   I use a fan for cooling myself down.
2. I use the scissors to cut paper. I cut paper with a pair of scissors.
   I use a pair of scissors for cutting a piece of paper.
3. I use a calculator to add sums. I add sums with a calculator.
   I use a calculator for doing calculations.
4. I use a piece of thread to sew. I sew with a peice of thread.
   I use some thread for sewing.
5. I use a rubber to correct the mistake. I correct the mistake with a rubber.
   I use a rubber for rubbing away the mistake.
6. I use a pencil sharpener to sharpen pencils. I sharpen pencils with a pencil-
   I use a pencil sharpener for sharpening pencils. sharpener.
7. I use a spoon to drink soup. I drink soup with a spoon.
   I use a spoon for drinking soup.
8. I use a piece of string to tie a parcel. I tie a parcel with a piece of string.
   I use a piece of string for tying a parcel.

Making Comparisons

1.3.89; 2.3.89

I. Comparison of Appearance:

1. Louise is fatter than Beginia.
2. Windy is taller than Venassa.
3. Angela is stronger than Lily.
4. Peggy is thinner than Sandy.
5. Windy has got longer hair than Venassa.
6. Louise's nose is bigger than Beginia's.
7. Angela's hair is shorter than Lily's.
8. Peggy's mouth is smaller than Sandy's.
9. _____ is _____ than I.
10. _____ cheung-sam is _____ than mine.

II. Comparison of things:

1. Eva and Daisy's pencil boxes are the same.
2. Windy has got a thinner pencil box than Venassa.

Quantity

3. _____ has more keys than _____.
4. _____ has many more relatives than _____.
5. _____ has much more money in her purse than _____.
6. _____ has less rubbish in her drawer than _____.
7. _____ has fewer mistakes in her dictation than _____.
8. There are more _____ in our school than _____.
9. There is less _____ in our class than _____.
10. There are fewer _____ on my desk than _____.

An Introduction to Liverpool

by Miss A. Fitzpatrick 9.3.89

I am from Liverpool, which is in the north of England. It's a big industrial city. It used to be a lot bigger than it is now. There are far fewer factories than there were a few years ago. So that means it is a city with a lot of unemployment (lots of people who have no jobs). So that's a bigger problem in the north of England than in the south of England. In China, the south of China is richer than the north of China. Well, in England, the south of England is richer than the north of England. Liverpool is still a very big city.

There are lots and lots of churches in Liverpool. There are more churches in Liverpool than in most of the other cities in England. Now, it's very unusual in England that Liverpool is a very Catholic city. (I think that you are Protestant. There are lots of Irish people in Liverpool. My name is Irish, and the Irish are generally Catholic.) So it's a very Catholic city with lots of churches. So we have two cathedrals (a very big church). They are very lovely. The Catholic cathedral is small and modern. The Protestant cathedral is about a hundred years old, and it took them one hundred years to build them. So the Protestant cathedral is much bigger than the Catholic cathedral. In between there is a street, a road, and it's called Hope Street. It is hoped that the two churches, I suppose, will work together for Christianity. I have a better, clearer picture here of the Catholic and Protestant cathedrals. When I was at school, we used to go there, the church, sometimes for special occasions. We didn't go to the Protestant cathedral. That's the Catholic cathedral. It's called Christ the King. I don't know what that one's called (i.e. the Protestant one).

These are not of Liverpool, they are of Thailand (she found some postcards from Thailand in her bag). A big difference, except we do have the sea in Liverpool. But the sea in Thailand is much bluer, and much cleaner and is much warmer than the sea in Liverpool. Now, Liverpool is a port. Is Hong Kong a port? A port is a place where ships come and go. Like Hong Kong, ships come to Hong Kong with lots of goods, or actually they go from Hong Kong with lots of goods, import and export, trade, commerce, business. A few years ago, about a hundred years ago, Liverpool was one of the biggest ports in the world; but it's not as big now, it's a smaller port now. But we still have ferries like in Hong Kong. We've a very good ferry service, which is more expensive than in Hong Kong. And we still have lots of ships coming to Liverpool, but far fewer ships come now than came a hundred years ago. So that's the port, and these are office blocks. And there's a hotel here in the shape of a ship. They built a hotel like a ship.

Right, now Liverpool is still a very important commercial centre, lots of commerce and lots of government offices. These are goverenment offices here. My mother used to work in that building. She met my father in that building, the Liver Building,

we call it. Actually, it's very beautiful, it's a very nice building; and the two liver birds on top. This is a restaurant at the back. Right, now this one -- I told you that Liverpool was a very important port. It was more important a few years ago than it is now. So, it's got lots of buildings, old buildings by the sea, at the waterfront; but they don't use them any more. Well, they use them for offices and flats, very expensive flats. The flats here are more expensive than some flats in London. They are very expensive. Lots of rich people have bought them. It's very beautiful, lovely shops, very nice shops. Lots of young people like to go here, called the Albert Duct. Dork

That's Liverpool at night. Is it like Hong Kong. Everything now in England seems very low. The buildings in Hong Kong are much higher than in England. These are a few more postcards. Our shopping centre -- Mark's and Spencer. Do you go to Mark's and Spencer in Tsimshatsui, in the Harbour City? Very good shop, not a big one in Liverpool. We've got lots in all the cities, don't we? These are museums, an old school. The Liver Buildings, the top of the Liver Buildings with the big clock.

This is a poster of places around Liverpool. That's the waterfront. Actually, the waterfront is very beautiful. Yea, I like it, it's really very very beautiful. There're lots of parks in and around Liverpool. There are more parks in Liverpool than in any other cities in England. I can walk to the city centre which is nine miles from my house through five parks, but it's not very safe. It's a bit dangerous. It's more dangerous for a girl to walk on her own in England than in Hong Kong. It's far safer in Hong Kong. We have a big safari park. You have Ocean Park, we have the safari park. A safari park is a very big park, where the animals are free. It's a bit like a zoo, but a safari park is better and healthier for the animals than a zoo. The animals are freer in a Sasfari park than in a zoo. Do you have pets? What do you have then? Lots of people in England have dogs. More people in England have dogs than in Hong Kong and lots of people have cats. Lots of women like cats. But the cats in Hong Kong are very thin. Cats in England are much fatter than Hong Kong cats.

The Beatles -- Do you like the Beatles? I love the Beatles. They are great, really excellent. Who do you like best? When I was in England, I taught in the same school that John Lennon and Paul Macartney went to. They were very clever. I didn't teach them. They were a lot older than me. John Lennon's aunt lived near my house. He's very middle-class. They're not from poor families, except for Ringle Star. They are very clever. They are cleverer, more intelligent than people often think.

All right, now this picture is of -- is that modern Liverppol or old Liverpool? Old or new? Old. The houses were poorer than they are now, 1949, after the war. Lots and lots of rows of houses. They don't exist any more, a lot of them. But you can see the Liver Buildings at the back.

Question Time

1. Are you married?
   Am I married? Do I have a wedding ring on? No. Am I Mrs. Fitzpatrick? No. I'm not married. I am looking for a millionaire (somebody with lots of money). Do you know anybody with lots of money? I am joking.

2. Why do you come to Hong Kong?
   I came to Hong Kong to try and teach in a new environment, to have a new experience. But it's easier to teach in Hong Kong than to teach in England. It's much more difficult to teach in England than to teach in Hong Kong. In Hong Kong, the students are more hard working. In England, students do not work very hard, and the students in England are naughtier than students in Hong Kong. There are far more, far fewer problems, teaching in Hong Kong than teaching in England; and Hong Kong is an exciting place, too.

3. Do you speak Chinese?
   I speak about three words of Chinese. (Which three?) No, because you laugh. I can count to ten, I can say my name, I can say my job. But you speak much more English than I can speak Cantonese. Cantonese is very difficult for us, very very difficult. It's much harder for us to learn Cantonese, than for you to learn English, I think. Also, English is more useful for you than Cantonese is for me, it's more useful for you to learn English than for me to learn Cantonese. I do speak other languages. I can speak French and Spanish, and a bit of Italian.

4. Where have you been?
   Where have I been? Countries, different places? Right, I have been to western Europe. Tell me some countries in Europe, and I'll tell you if I've been. Start with Spain, yes, go on. France, yes, one year in France. Any where else? Italy, Germany, Belgium, Switzerland, lots of times, just Switzerland, Holland. Holland is very much like England, Andorra, Luxemburg. Luxemburg is very beautiful. Little country, Luxemburg. Right, Mexico, one year. Macau, China, Thailand. What a lot of places, isn't it? What about you? Where have you been? China, Where in China? Is that in north or south of China? South of China, do you speak Mandarin? A little. I think that Mandarin is easier to learn for us than Cantonese. There are fewer tones in Mandarin than in Cantonese. There are more tones in Cantonese than in Mandarin. Nine in Cantonese, four in Mandarin.

5. Could you tell us about the difference in fashion between England and Hong Kong?
   The fashion, yes. I think that Hong Kong fashion is very very nice. I think that in Hong Kong, people pay more attention to fashion than in England. People in Hong Kong spend more on clothes and dressing than people in England. English people spend more on their houses, on their homes than on themselves.

Right? But the fashions aren't very similar in many ways. Here you wear more mini-skirts. I notice that you wear more mini-skirts, yea? And it's more casual in England. People wear more jeans and training shoes. Women in Hong Kong dress up more. They wear more dressier clothes. Perhaps more expensive clothes. I think clothes .... well, no, clothes in Hong Kong are cheaper than clothes in England. But you can get very good quality very cheaply here, so people look very well dressed. When I came to Hong Kong, that was the first thing, well, one of the first things that I noticed, that people really are better dressed here than in England, but it's different. People in England spend more money on their homes. They have bigger homes. And homes in England, I think, are perhaps more expensive than homes in Hong Kong.

6. Do you like Hong Kong or England better?
Well, there are things about England that I like very much and things about Hong Kong that I like very much. In Hong Kong, I prefer the climate. It's colder in England than in Hong Kong. The climate is much more pleasant in Hong Kong. Very cold in England at this time, very very, though I'm cold in Hong Kong now. But in England, we have heating. Do you understand heating? Fires. Central heating in the classroom. If it's very cold, in English school, we all go home. So that is something that is better in England than in Hong Kong. So it's much better in England than in Hong Kong in that respect. What else? I think that it's safer in Hong Kong, not as much crime. Girls have to be careful in England. In England, there is more space, much more space than in Hong Kong. So we have generally, people have bigger houses. So I think that's true, that they have bigger houses. There's more space to move, so life is a bit easier, maybe, in the home in England than in Hong Kong. I think that family is more important in Hong Kong than in England, which I think is very good. In England, not always, the family is not always as important as it is in Hong Kong.

7. Could you tell us about the difference in food between England and Hong Kong?
Right, first thing about the food, chopsticks. In England, we do not use chopsticks. What do we use? Knife and fork, and it's more difficult to use chopsticks than to use a knife and fork, and chopsticks are much slower. You eat slower. Perhaps that's why you are all so slim. Anyway, the food. You eat much more rice than us. We eat very little rice. You eat rice, we eat potatoes. Potatoes are very good for you. You eat little bits of meat. We eat bigger bits of meat than you. So a meal for you is a bit of fish, a bit of meat, vegetables, rice, right? In England, depends on the day. But normally, it's a big piece of meat, vegetables, potatoes and a cake. We eat more cakes than you. We have sweeter tooth than you. We like sweeter things. We drink more, we drink Indian .... you drink Chinese tea, we drink a lot of tea too. We drink Indian tea. Indian tea is stronger than Chinese tea, but it's very good.

8. What is the difference in the festivals between Hong Kong and England.
We have different festivals. Here you have the Moon Festival , Chinese New Year. In England, Chinese New Year does not exist, except when I was a student, I was in one school and they had a lot of Chinese students, so they did a little something for Chinese New Year. But Chinese New Year does not exist for us. But Christmas is a bigger festival in England than in Hong Kong, but much more important festival in England than in Hong Kong and in China. In fact, Christmas in Northern Europe is much more important for the people than in Southern Europe. and it's becauses I think, Christmas cuts a long winter in half. The winter in England is very long, so people like to have Christmas. It gives them something to look forward to. So it's more important than in Hong Kong. And also, England is a Christian country. At China, I don't think that .... I think there are lots of .... Hong Kong is more Buddhist, isn't it? Like China, I think. We have Easter. Easter is quite a big festival. But Easter is a bigger festival in Spain and France than in England. What else do we have? Guy Fawke, do you know Guy Fawke? On the 5th of November. Well, on the 5th of November a few hundred years ago, Guy Fawke tried to blow up the government, the Houses of Parliament, that every year now, we have fires, a bonfire.

Comparison of Two Flats -- Which one would you like to buy?

A. These are the new flats that I want to buy. They are flats of the New Tuen Mun Centre and Greenfield Garden. The New Tuen Mun Centre is in Tuen Mun; the Greenfield Garden is in Tsing Yi. But the Greenfield Garden is further away from the city than the New Tuen Mun Centre.

Flats of the New Tuen Mun Centre are cheaper than flats of the Greenfield Garden; but flats of the New Tuen Mun Centre are bigger than flats of the Greenfield Garden. The New Tuen Mun Centre has more facilities than the Greenfield Garden. There are more shopping centre, car park and parks here than there are in the Greenfield Garden.

I would like to buy the New Tuen Mun Centre because it is cheaper, bigger and the transportation is more convenient than the Greenfield Garden.

Peggy Wong

B. The New Jade Garden is above the Chai Wan MTR Station and the Hang Fa Chuen is above the Hang Fa Chuen MTR Station. I feel the New Jade Garden is as good as the Hang Fa Chuen. It is because the New Jade Garden is well served by more buses, mini-buses and the MTR. The Hang Fa Chuen is as small as the New Jade Garden. I prefer the New Jade Garden because nearby the estate, there are some shopping centres. I don't like Hang Fa Chuen because near that estate is the airport. There are areoplanes flying over the estate. That is too noisy.

Eva Wong

C. I will compare two flats. One belongs to Yin Fai Building, another belongs to the Parkvale. Yin Fai Building is at Tsap Fai Street, Cheung Sha Wan. This building is near the Caritas Hospital. It is served by bus only, and the MTR Station is not very near. So it is not easy to go from here to the Hong Kong Island.

The Parkvale is at King's Road, Quarry Bay. There are many shops and convenience stores in the neighbourhood. Tai Tam Country Park is near and the park is beautiful. The Parkvale is served by many public transports.

Yin Fai Building is not at the city centre. So Yin Fai Building is cheaper than the Parkvale. The construction of Yin Fai Building is finished, but the construction of the Parkvale is not finished. The area of Yiu Fai Building is smaller than the Parkvale's. So the Parkvale has more bedrooms than Yin Fai Building. The Parkvale has more facilities in the kitchen than Yin Fai Building.

Between these two flats, I prefer the Parkvale to Yin Fai Building.

Louise Tse

Our family is planning to move to another house. Therefore, we looked for different flats in different places. At last, we found two flats to choose between.

One of the flats is in Greenfield Garden which is located on Ching Yi Island. It has an area of 640 sq. feet. Another flat is in Grand View Garden which is located in Tuen Mun. It has an area of 1030 sq. feet.

The flat in Grand View Garden is bigger than the one in Greenfield Garden, but it is also more expensive. It has three bedrooms, one dining room, one living-room, two toilets and one kitchen. The flat also includes the offer of two gas stoves and cupboards.

The flat in Greenfield Garden has two bedrooms, one living room, one toilet and one kitchen. It also includes the offer of two gas stoves and air-conditioners.

Grand View Garden has the facilities of a swimming pool, a garden and a tennis court. However, Greenfield Garden only has a small garden.

The transport of both gardens is quite convenient. There are minibuses and buses. We can even take the MTR to reach the Grand View Garden.

Finally, we have chosen Grand View Garden. We like it more because it has more facilities and it is bigger. The transport is more convenient too.

Now, we are deciding how to decorate the house, so that is can be more comfortable and attractive.

Fiona Suen

M2B 300589

Quiz

I. Definitions by Pop Club

1. The girl who won in the Miss Hong Kong Competition last year. (Michelle Lee)
2. The person who is the Governor of Hong Kong now. (Sir David Wilson)
3. The place which has many big banks and offices on the Hong Kong Island. (Central)
4. The man who is the President of the U.S.A. (President Bush)
5. The city which is the capital of China. (Beijing)
6. The lady who is the Headmistress of True Light Middle School of Hong Kong. (Miss Leung Yin Ting)
7. The person who is the Primier of China. (Li Peng)
8. The school which is at Tai Hang Road and is very near to our school. (New Method College)
9. The person who teaches us English (Miss Anne Ma)
10. The city which is the capital of England. (London)
11. The girl who is the shortest and has a baby face in our class. (Lily)

II. Diana

12. Something which we use to drink some cold drink. (a straw)
13. A person who sells something in the street. (a hawker)
14. A Japanese department store which is most popular in Causeway Bay. (Sogo)
15. Something which we use to eat Chinese food. (chopsticks)
16. A place where we go to see a film. (a cinema)
17. Something which is used like a handkerchief. (tissue paper)
18. A box which each student brings to school everyday. (a pencil-box)
19. A person who hunts criminals (i.e. bad people who break the law) (A detective / A policeman)

III. Sophia

20. The girl who is the most popular singer in Hong Kong. (Anita Mui)
21. The place where the Peak Tram goes. (The Peak)
22. The place which is most popular of seafood. (Aberdeen)

23. The place where the Space Museum is found.
    (Tsim Sha Tsui)
24. The person who was the first student leader of the Student Movement in China.
    (Wu'er Kaixi)
25. A famous tourist spot which is near our school.
    (Tiger Balm Garden)
26. A school rule that you do not like.
    (Open-ended answer)
27. The place where people go for horse-racing.
    (Happy Valley race course / Shatin race course)
28. A place in Kowloon which has most people living there.
    (Mongkok / Shamshuipo)
29. A city which is also called Pearl of the Orient.
    (Hong Kong)
30. The popular male singer whom Eva likes.
    (Leslie Cheung)
31. An outlying island which many people visit in weekends.
    (Lantau / Cheung Chau / Lamma)
32. A person who cooks in a large restaurant or hotel.
    (a chef)
33. A person who looks after sick people.
    (a doctor/ a nurse)
34. An instrument which is used for cutting paper.
    (scissors)
35. The year in which our school was set up.
    (1935)
36. The year in which we will have our next sports meeting of the four True Light schools in Hong Kong.
    (1990)
37. The instrument which can tell us the direction (It has a needle always always points to the north).
    (a compass)
38. The place where the march / walk of more than one million people on last Sunday ended.
    (Victoria Park)
39. The old man who is the most important leader in the Chinese government. (Deng Shao Ping)
40. The date on which the final exam starts.
    (12 June)
41. The date on which the summer holiday starts
    (14 July)
42. The most popular band of singers who came from Liverpool in the 1960s.
    (The Beatles)

Appendix 7

Responses to the Common Questions in the Prestudy and the Poststudy Questionnaires (Pilot Study)
Read each statement below and put an X against the answer that is true to you.

often (0)(0)*
1. I sometimes (11)(10) read English books in my leisure.
seldom (9)(10)

very satisfied (0)(1)
2. I'm satisfied (11)(6) with my academic performance in general.
very dissatisfied (9)(13)

like (7)(12)
3. I don't specially like or dislike (12)(13) English lessons.
dislike (1)(0)

above average. (0)(1)
4. Compared to my classmates, my English standard is average. (10)(7)
below average. (10)(11)

often (6)(2)
5. I sometimes (14)(18) work hard in English.
seldom (0)(0)

an easy thing. (0)(0)
6. I think learning English is not too difficult nor easy. (17)(17)
a difficult thing. (3)(3)

like (7)(5)
7. I don't specially like or dislike (12)(15) to make friends with English speaking people.
dislike (1)(0)

like (/)(6)
8. I don't specially like or dislike (/)(10) our English text book.
dislike (/)(4)

like (/)(9)
9. I don't specially like or dislike (/)(9) the individual conference.
dislike (/)(2)

some progress (/)(4)
10. I think I have little progress (/)(7) in English this year.
done worse (/)(9)

Thank you for your co-operation. Could you write in the space below your feelings, opinions and suggestions about the teaching of English you have this year:

* Figure in the first bracket stands for the no. of responses in the Prestudy Questionnaire.
Figure in the second bracket stands for the no. of responses in the Poststudy Questionnaire.

Comments of students to the open-ended question in the second questionnaire:

* It's good to be able to talk with English-speaking people and to learn the English names of famous tourists spots in Hong Kong.

* I hope to have more chance to talk to English-speaking people, but I prefer to have a Chinese teacher to teach us English. I like both traditional teaching method and activity teaching method. I've learned a great deal this year.

* We have a good atmosphere during the Enlish lesson. I like discussions and drama.

* I like the present teaching method. The teacher is kind. We can voice our views freely. So we all like English lessons.

* It's good to have more activities in the lesson. They help us to learn and understand better. (Another girl also made a similar comment.)

* Lessons in the first term were boring because we always followed the text book; but lessons in the second term were more interesting and full of varieties. Such teaching method allows us to think more and use English in a more lively way. It's better to teach less of the story book `Little Women' and use the time to teach us more about the English we need in our everyday life. It would be fun to read some ghost stories.

* My performace in English was not good in the year past, but the teacher used many good ways to help me so that I didn't have fear of English. I suggest you teach more English conversation and something about English culture.

* The English text book this year is rather easy. We should all speak in English during the English lesson.

* The teacher teaches well. The text book is easy but somtimes I feel it is useless to buy the text book for we don't use it often.

* We have more group activities so that we can learn from our friends.

* I feel the English lessons this year are better than before because of the activities.

* I think the teaching method is good and I can understand well, but sometimes I can't `digest' everything I've learned. But I feel many of my classmates are too playful this year that they

don't pay enough attention and disturb others as well. Maybe I am one of them.

* It's better to teach the texts in our text book, so that it will be easier for us to do our revision. The present teaching method is good.

* There are too many activities outside the English curriculum. Too little time is used on teaching the book. (two girls gave this answer.)

* This year the English lessons are conducted in a more activity-based method. The advantage of it is lessons are more lively and interesting but the disadvantage is that many things in the book are not taught so we learn less English. (my emphasis)

* 3 girls made no comments.

HONG KONG ATTAINMENT TESTS

Series I

English

Junior Secondary 1

Test A

Educational Research Establishment
Education Department. Hong Kong

Instructions

1. Answer all questions.
2. Write your answers on the answer sheet.
3. Do not write anything in this test booklet.

考生須知

1. 所有題目，必須作答。
2. 將答案寫在答題紙上。
3. 切勿塗寫此測驗卷。

Time allowed for the test

Sections A–F : 30 minutes.

Section G (Listening Test): 12 minutes.

測驗時間

A至F部 ：30分鐘。

G部(聆聽測驗)：12分鐘。

Write your answers on the answer sheet.
將答案寫在答題紙上。

Do not write anything in this test booklet.
切勿塗寫此測驗卷。

Section A (8 marks)

Make the most suitable choice to complete each item, and write the letter (A, B, C, or D) on the answer sheet.
試選擇每題最適當之答案，並在答題紙上填寫該答案前之英文字母（A，B，C或D）。

1. You must not run across the road without _____ both ways.

   A. knowing

   B. seeing

   C. watching

   D. looking

2. Bill: _____ you like singing?

   Jill: Yes.

   A. Is

   B. Are

   C. May

   D. Do

3. John: How long does it take you to reach home?

   Mary: _____

   A. Long ago.

   B. Long time.

   C. Two hours.

   D. Very slow.

4. It is a good habit to _____ your hair every day.

   A. cut

   B. watch

   C. bathe

   D. comb

5. Ted is good _____ painting.

   A. in

   B. at

   C. by

   D. on

6. Jack has _____ very tall in the last two years.

   A. growing

   B. grew

   C. grown

   D. grow

7. Don: What colour _____ your socks?

   Ben: Dark blue.

   A. are

   B. has

   C. is

   D. have

8. I don't understand how computers _____

   A. is working.

   B. has worked.

   C. works.

   D. work.

Section B (5 marks)

Choose the most suitable and polite response for each of the following situations, and write the letter (A, B, C or D) on the answer sheet.
試就所述之場合，選出最適當而且是有禮貌之應對。將答案前之英文字母（A，B，C或D）寫在答題紙上。

9. Dick: It's getting late.
   Harry: Yes, _____

   A. go home.

   B. go away.

   C. go on.

   D. let's go.

10. You have not heard what your teacher has said.
    You say: _____

    A. Could you please repeat that?

    B. You can say that again.

    C. May I repeat that?

    D. Please try again.

11. Someone stands in your way.
    You say: _____

    A. Take a step, please.

    B. Let me have my way.

    C. Thank you.

    D. Excuse me.

12. Cindy: Let's go for a walk.

    Judy: _____

    A. Yes, you can go now.

    B. Of course you may.

    C. That's a good idea.

    D. You may leave now.

13. Mother: Do you want another piece of cake?

    May: _____

    A. Yes, I shall.

    B. Yes, please.

    C. Yes, I want.

    D. Yes, I may.

Section C (8 marks)

Fill in each blank with one suitable word.
試用適當的單字填入各空格內。

Waiter: Good evening, sir.

John: Good ____(14)____ .

Waiter: ____(15)____ would you like?

John: Some chicken and rice, please.

Waiter: Anything to ____(16)____ ?

John: Yes, please. I'll ____(17)____ a Coke.

Waiter: Very good, sir. Chicken and rice, and a Coke.

Section D (16 marks)

Read the following passages carefully. Use the information from the text to complete each blank with one suitable word.
細閱下列各段文字，依據文字內容，用適當的單字填入各空格內。

John: Hello, Mary. I haven't seen you for a long time. Where are you living now? Here in Wan Chai?

Mary: Yes.

John: Do you work here?

Mary: No, I don't. I'm still selling clothes in the same shop in Mong Kok.

John: How long does it take you to get there?

Mary: It takes 15 minutes now by M.T.R., but half an hour by bus.

John: How's business?

Mary: We're doing very well. We have a lot of customers, and I'm always very busy. How about you?

John: I'm busy too. I'm looking forward to my holiday next week.

Mary: Oh, where are you going?

John: Japan.

Mary: You are lucky! Have a nice trip.

Mary is busy because many customers are buying ____(18)____ in her shop.

When Mary goes to work, it takes her ____(19)____ minutes less by M.T.R. than by bus.

John ____(20)____ Mary in Wan Chai.

John will be in ____(21)____ in a week's time.

Telephone: 3-363636

Flat 2A,
123, Waterloo Road,
Kowloon.

5th August, 1985.

Dear Ann,

Monday the 19th of this month is my tenth birthday, but I am having a party at home on the 18th. I am inviting some friends from school. I shall be very happy if you can come too.

The party will start at two o'clock, and will go on for about four hours. I am sure we will have a lot of fun.

Please phone me and let me know if you can come. I hope you can.

Best wishes.

Betty

Betty's party will be on the day ____(22)____ her birthday.

Betty was still ____(23)____ years old when she wrote the letter.

Betty asked Ann to ____(24)____ her in reply.

The party will end at about ____(25)____ p.m.

Section E (8 marks)

Read the telephone conversation between John and his friend, Tom. Use the information from the record card to fill in each blank with one word.
細閱約翰與朋友湯姆的一段談話。依據記錄咭的內容，用適當的單字填入各空格內。

John: Hello Tom! I've got some news for you.

I've just had a baby sister!

Tom: Congratulations! What's her name?

John: ____(26)____.

Tom: What's she like?

John: She's very pretty, she has beautiful ____(27)____ eyes, and she weighs four kilos.

Tom: Oh, she's quite big then. Where was she born?

John: In ____(28)____, at a quarter past six.

Tom: Morning or evening?

John: ____(29)____.

Tom: Give my best wishes to your mum.

John: Yes, I will. Thanks.

KING ALBERT HOSPITAL

Record of Birth

Name of Child: Wong, May Sex: ~~Boy~~/ (Girl)

Time and Date of Birth: 6.15 a.m.–18/8/85

Weight at Birth: 4 kg

Colour of Eyes: Brown

Colour of Hair: Black

Other Features: None

* * * * * *

Name of Mother: Wong, Chan Siu Ling.

Home Address: Flat 3A, 300, King's Road. Hong Kong.

Telephone No.: 5-711711

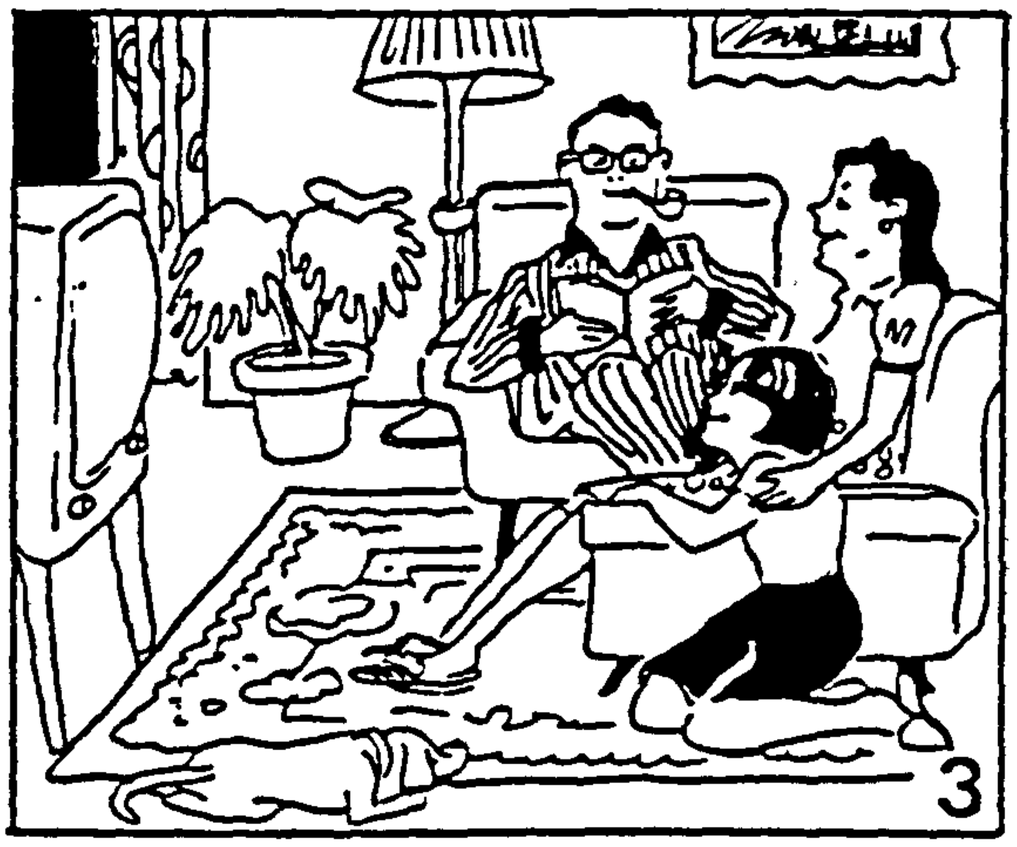
Doctor in Charge: White, George

Section F (15 marks)

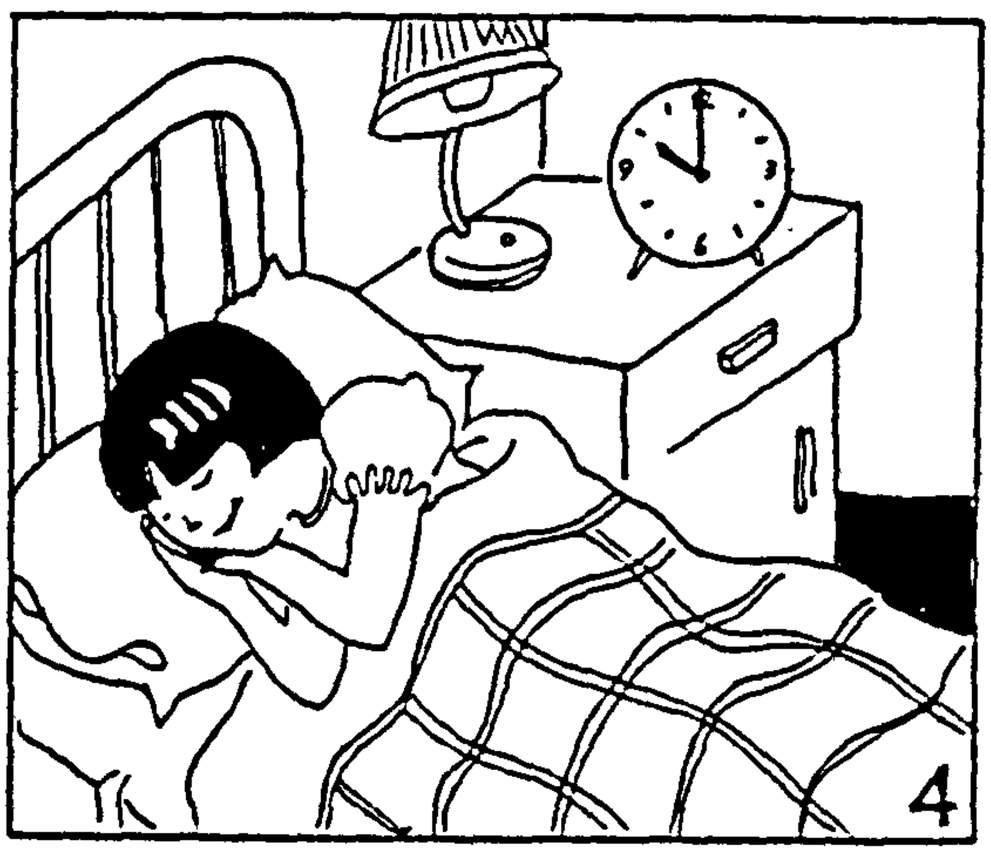
Guided Writing. With the help of these pictures and the words below, complete the composition.
依提示寫作。借助各圖畫的內容及其下面的文字去完成一段文章。

homework

kitchen



television



bed

30–34

This is how Mary Cheng spends her weekends.

In the morning, she _____ (30) _____

In the afternoon, she _____ (31) _____

In the evening, she _____ (32) _____

At about ten o'clock, she _____ (33) _____

She always likes weekends because _____ (34) _____

END OF SECTIONS A–F
A 至 F 部測驗完

Section G (15 marks)

LISTENING TEST

英語聆聽測驗

Time allowed: 12 minutes.

時限：12分鐘。

Instructions

1. Answer all questions.
2. Write your answers on the answer sheet.
3. Do not write anything in this test booklet.

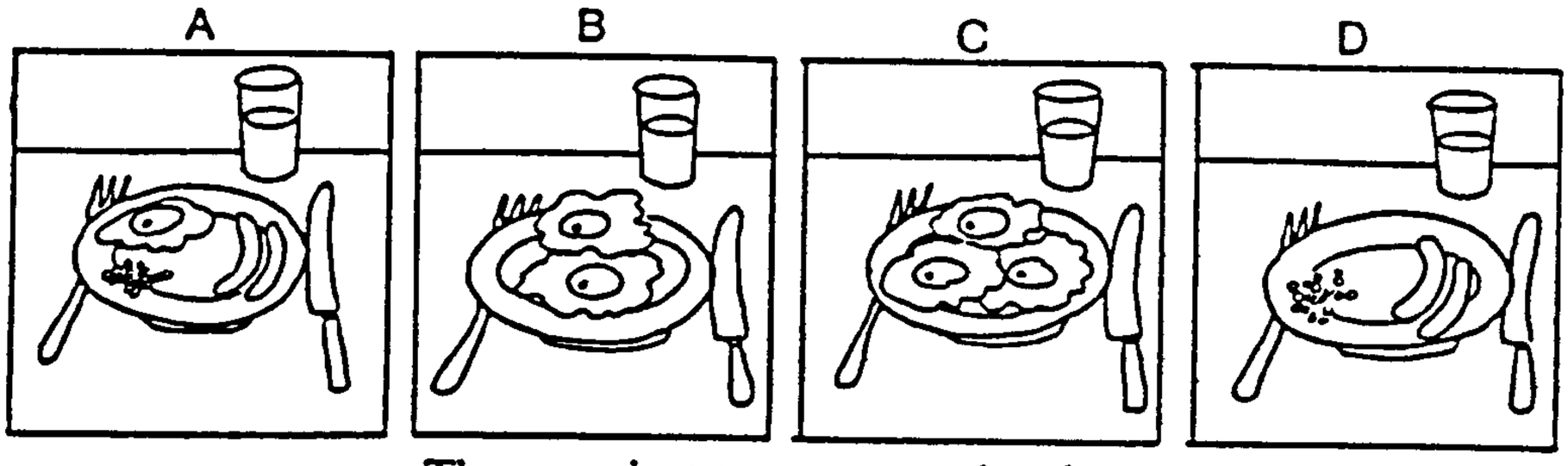
考生須知

1. 所有題目，必須作答。
2. 將答案寫在答題紙上。
3. 切勿塗寫此測驗卷。

In this test, you will hear some short statements. These statements are about the pictures you have in your question book. You have to choose one picture, A, B, C, or D in each case, according to the statement you hear. Here is an example:

在這測驗，你會聽到一些短句。這些短句是描述測驗卷上的圖畫。請你從圖A，B，C或D中選擇最貼切的一幅。看看下面一個舉例：

EXAMPLE
舉例



There are just two eggs on the plate.

Picture A has one egg.

Picture C has three eggs.

Picture D has no eggs. and

Picture B has two eggs.

So 'B' is the correct answer.

圖A 有一隻蛋。

圖C 有三隻蛋。

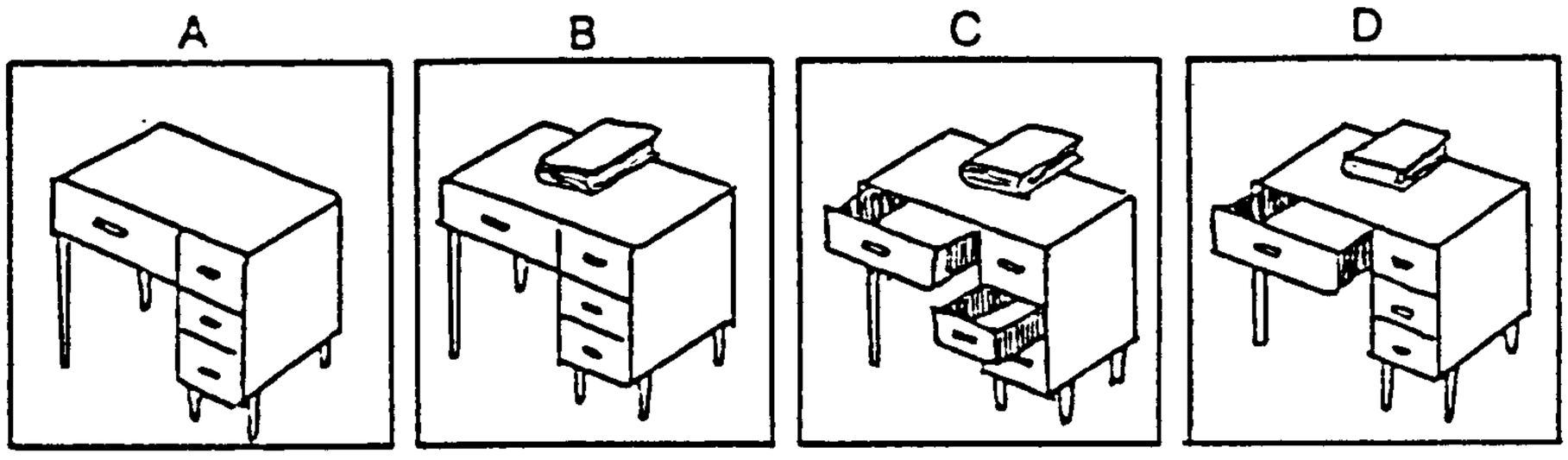
圖D 沒有蛋，而

圖B 有兩隻蛋。

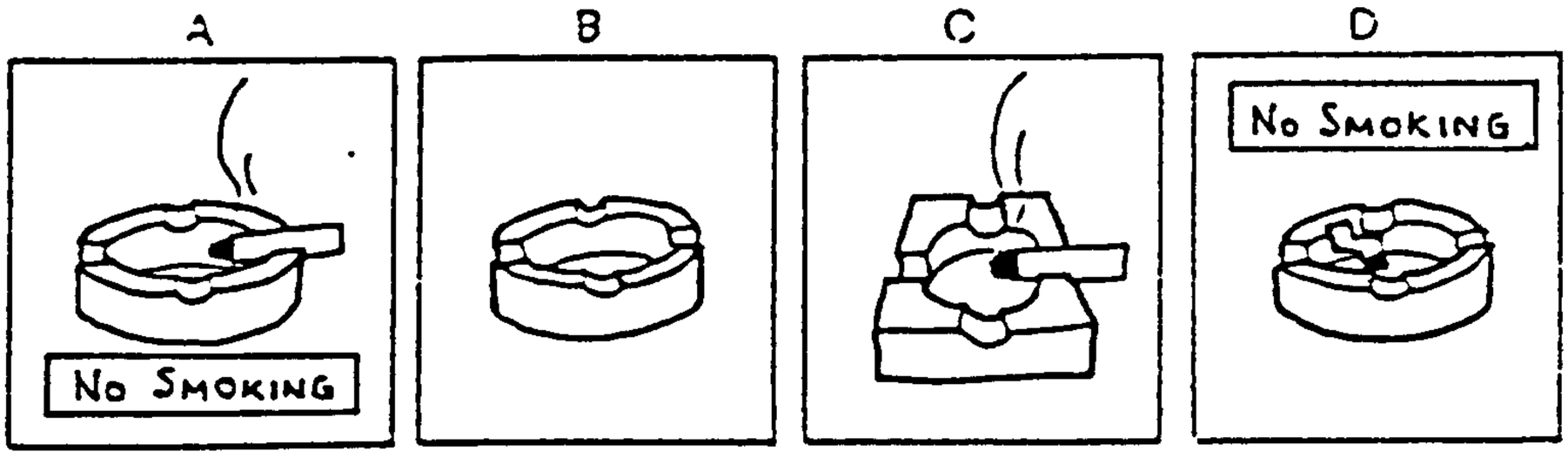
所以'B'是正確的答案。

小心聆聽，現在測驗開始。
Listen carefully. The test will now begin.

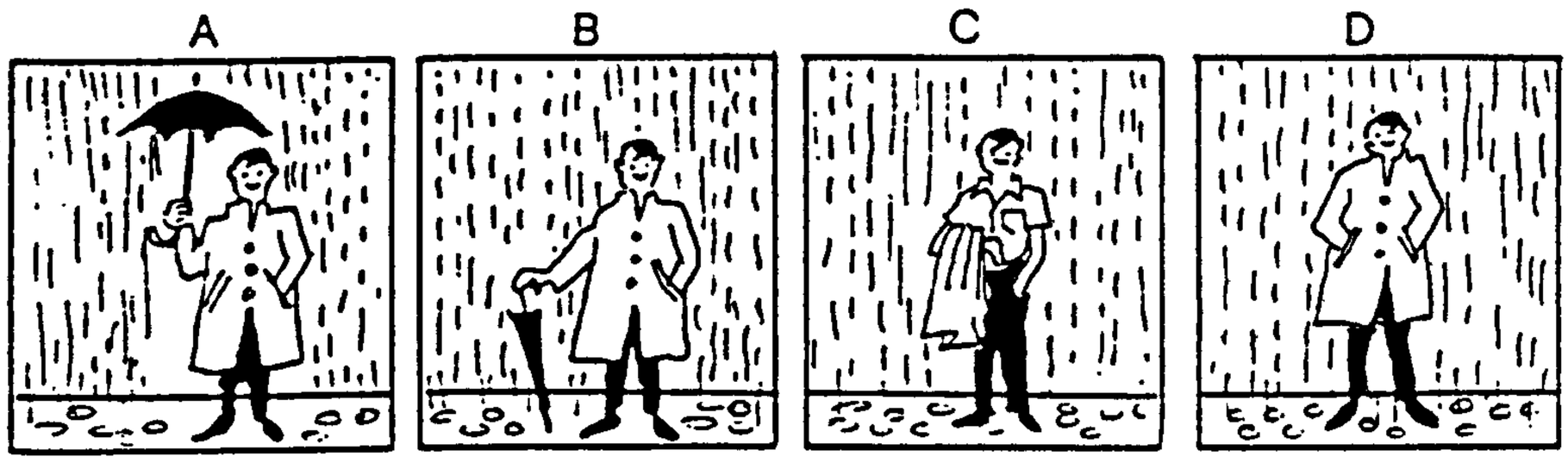
1.



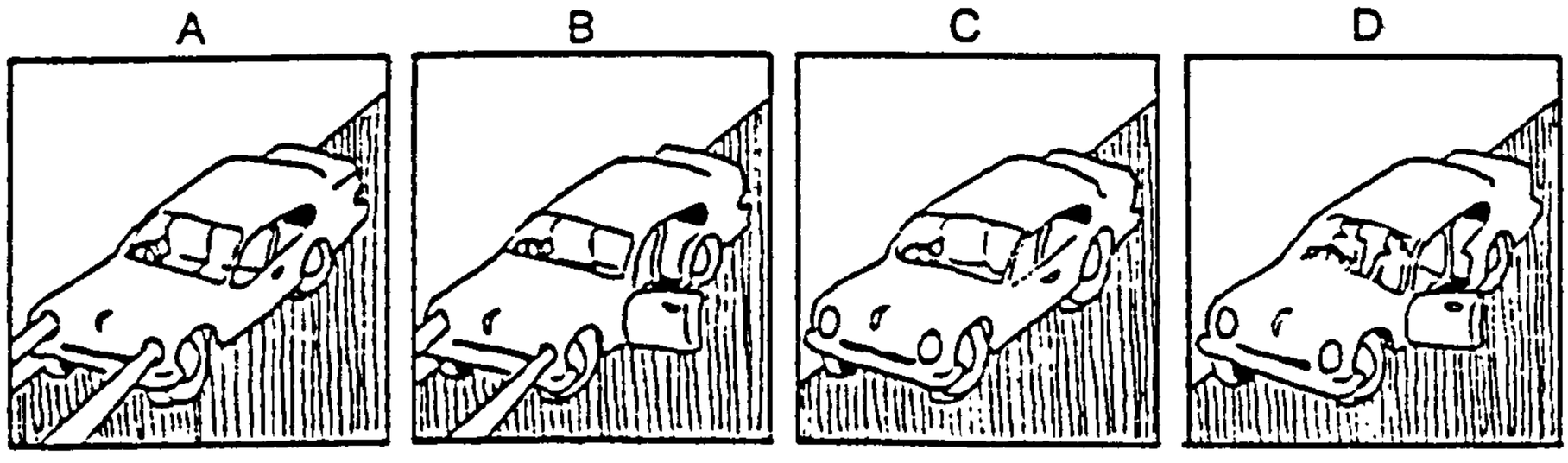
2.



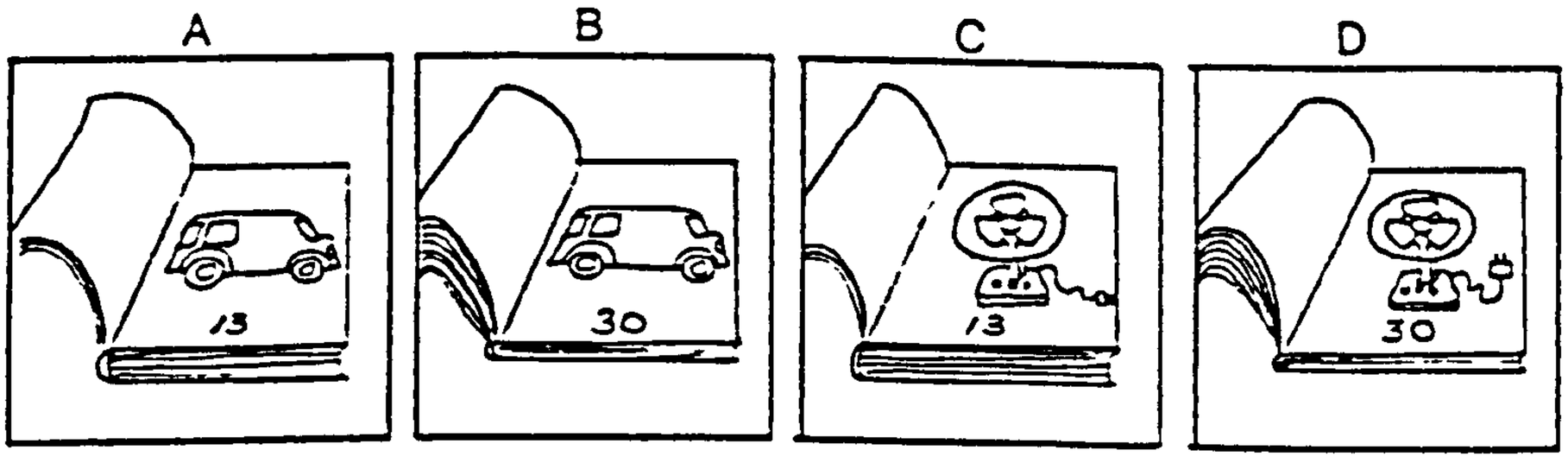
3.



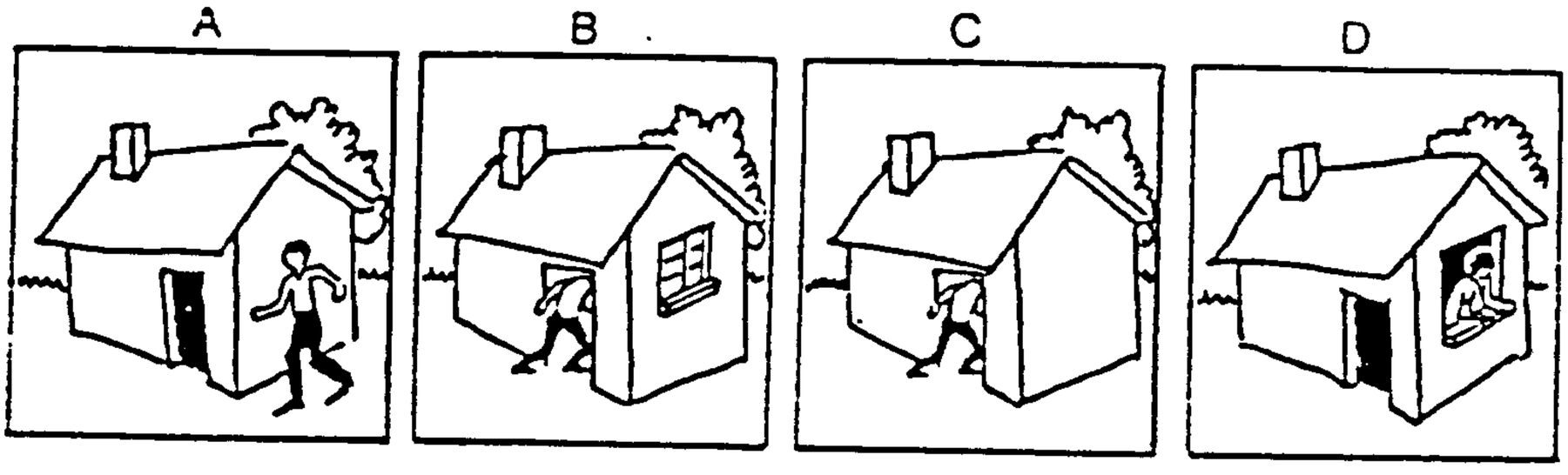
4.



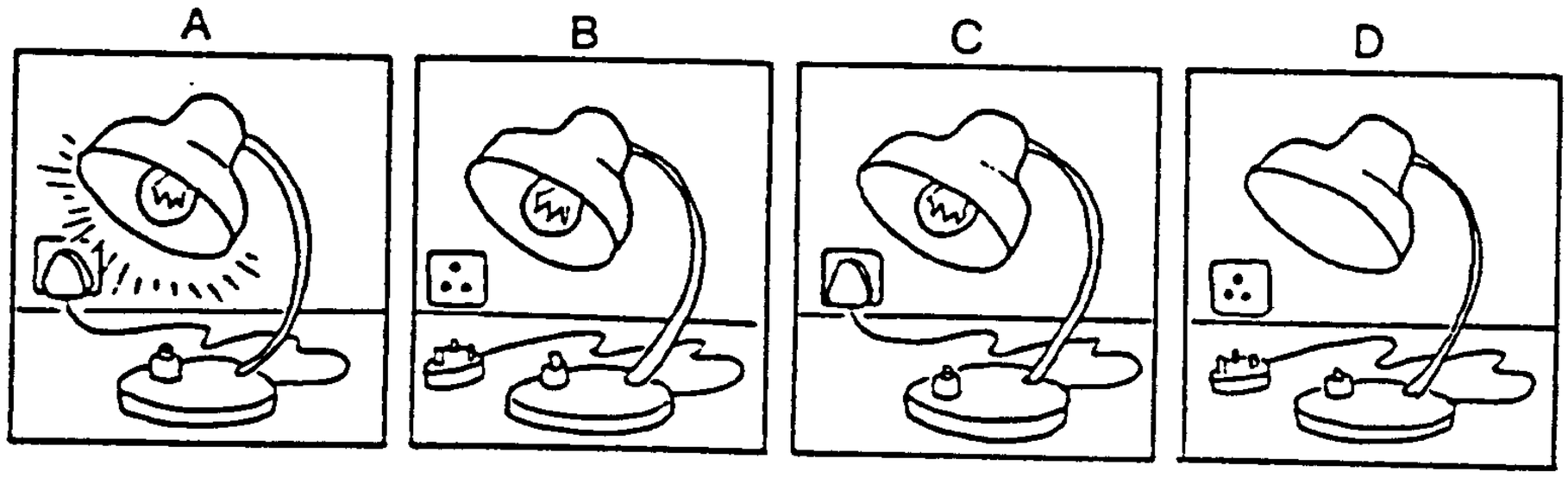
5.



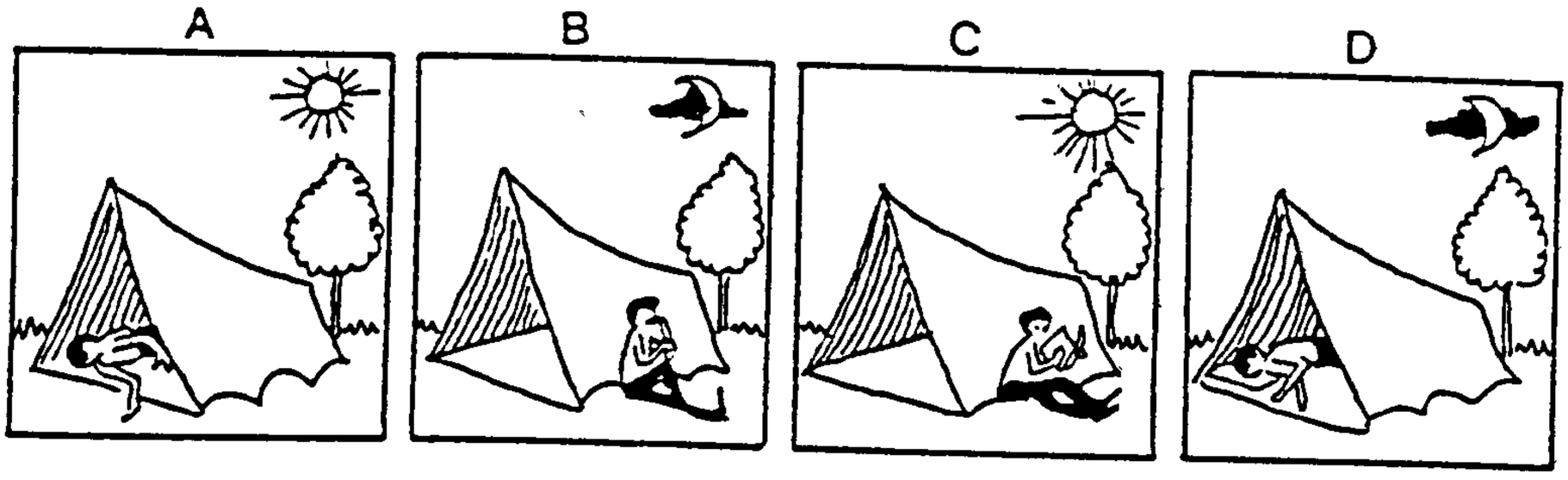
6.



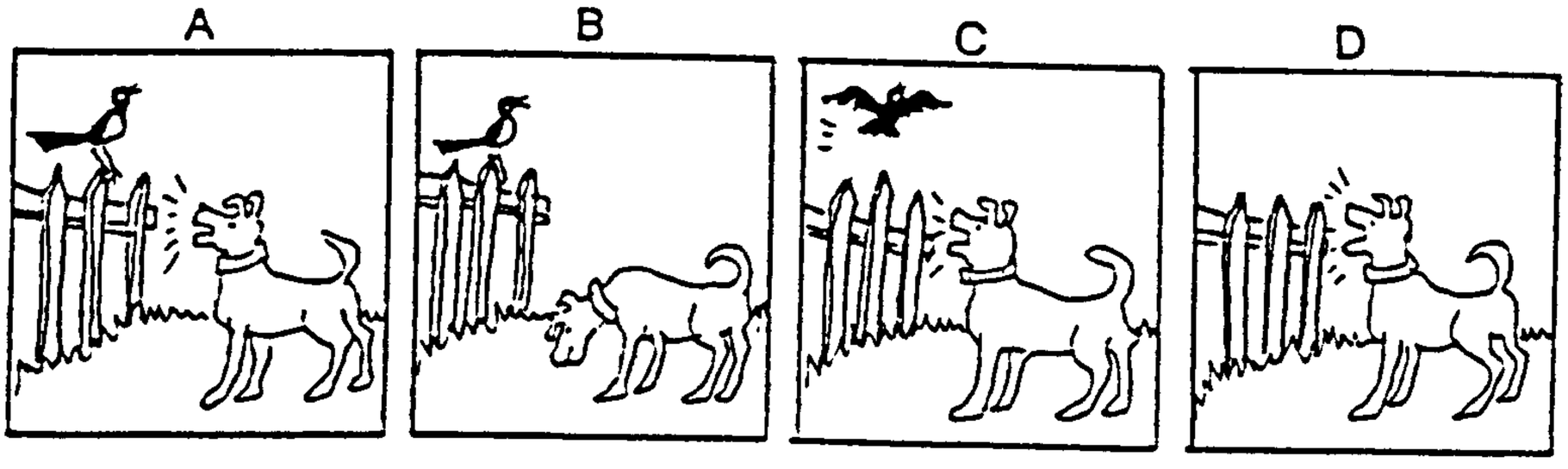
7.



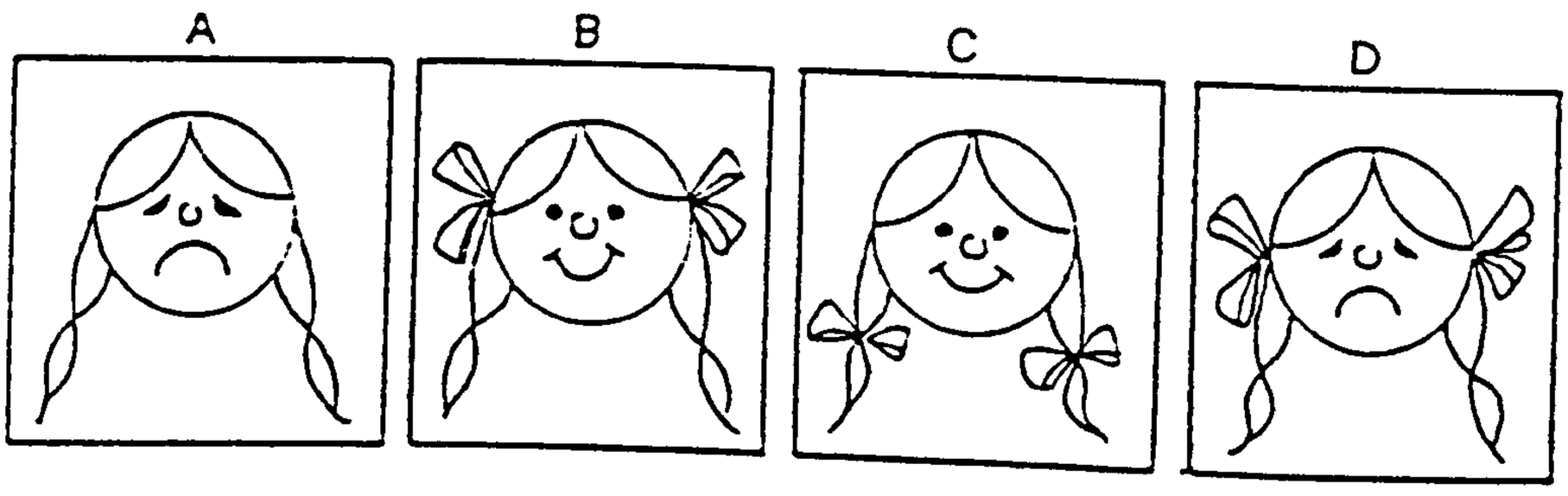
8.



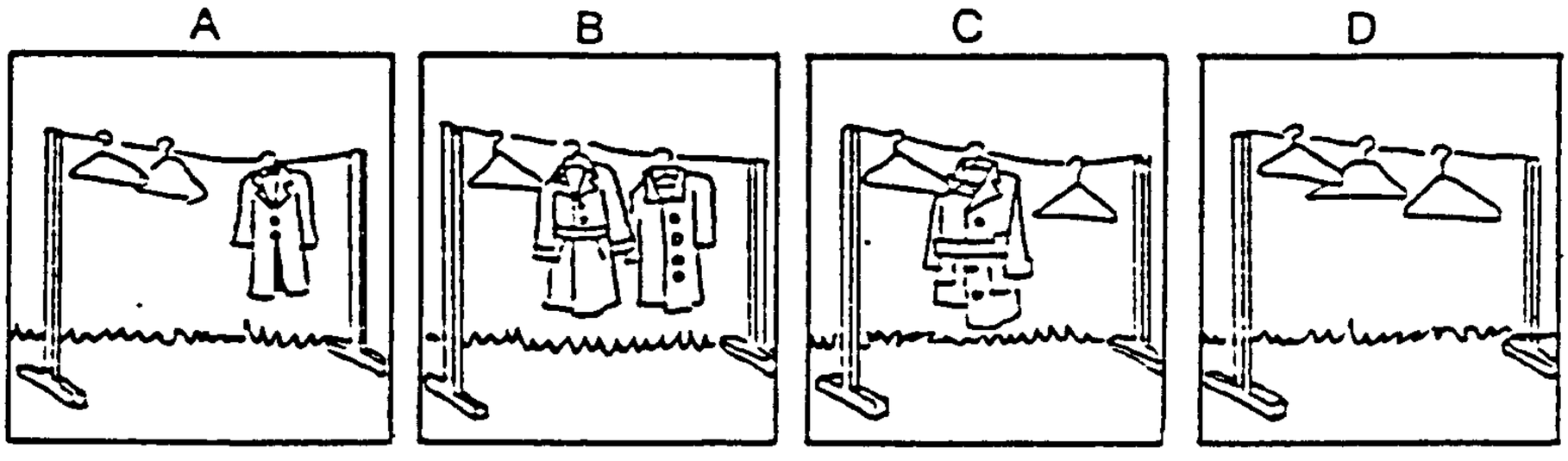
9.



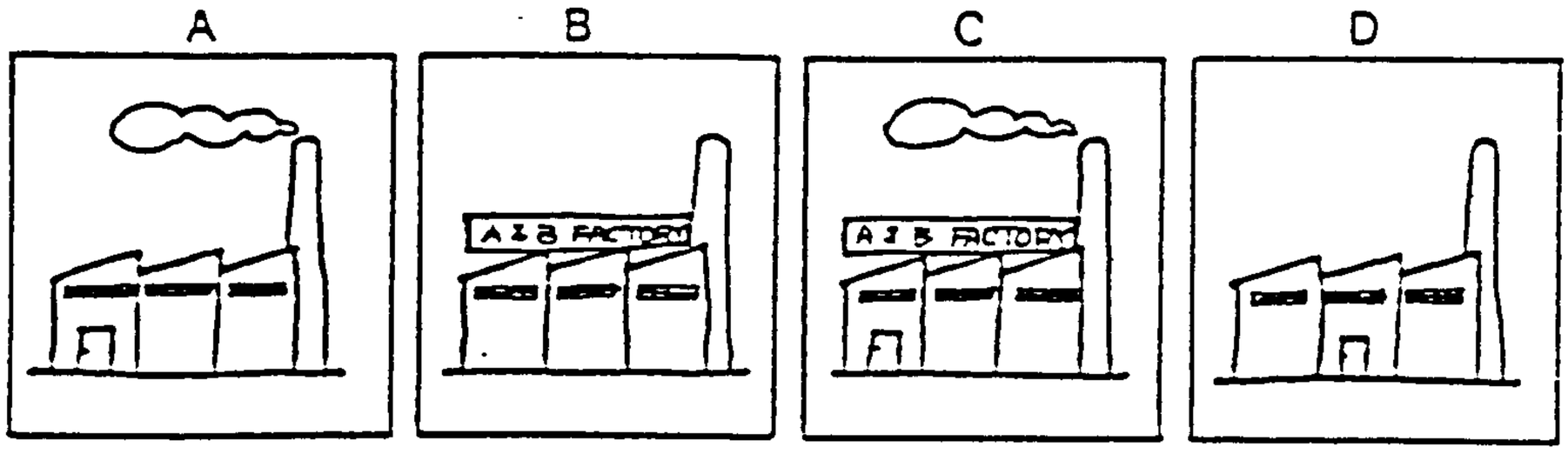
10.



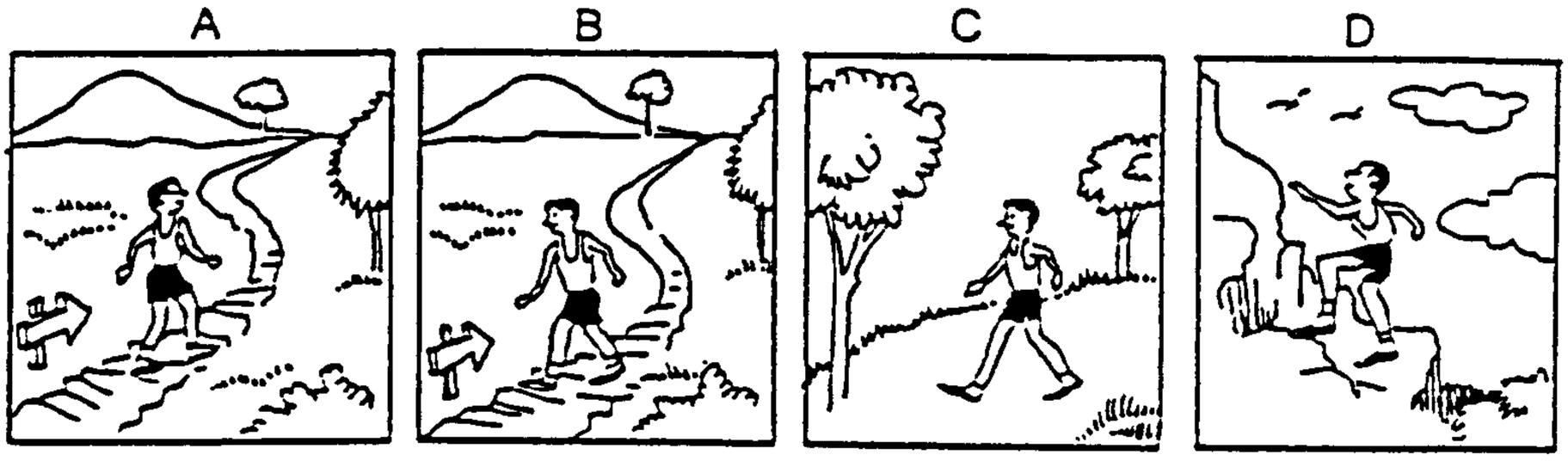
11.



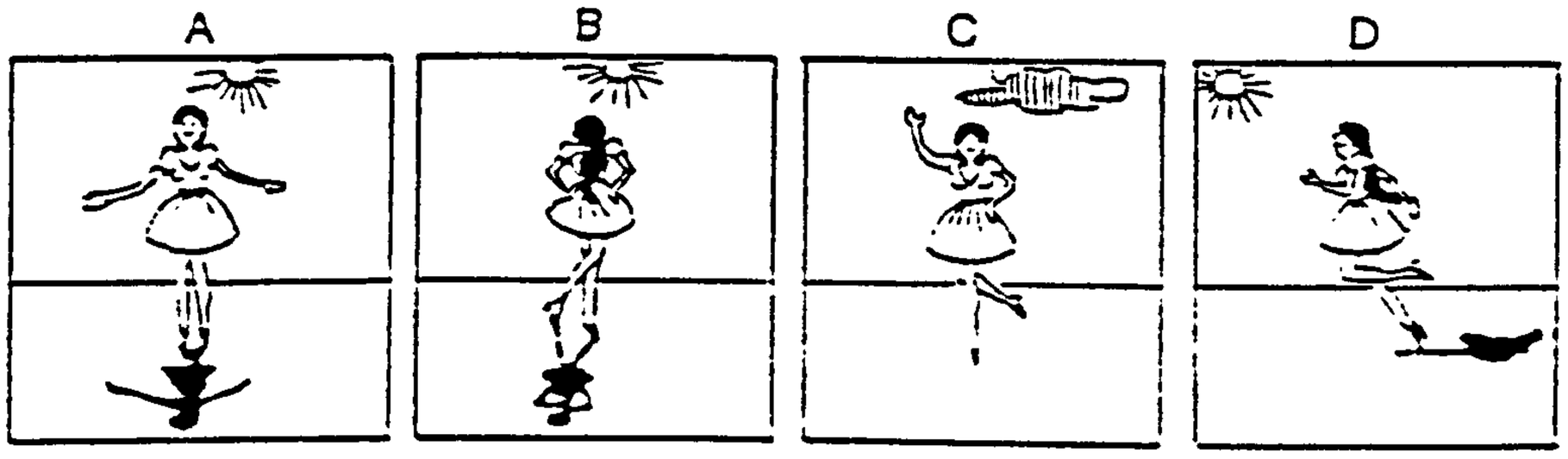
12.



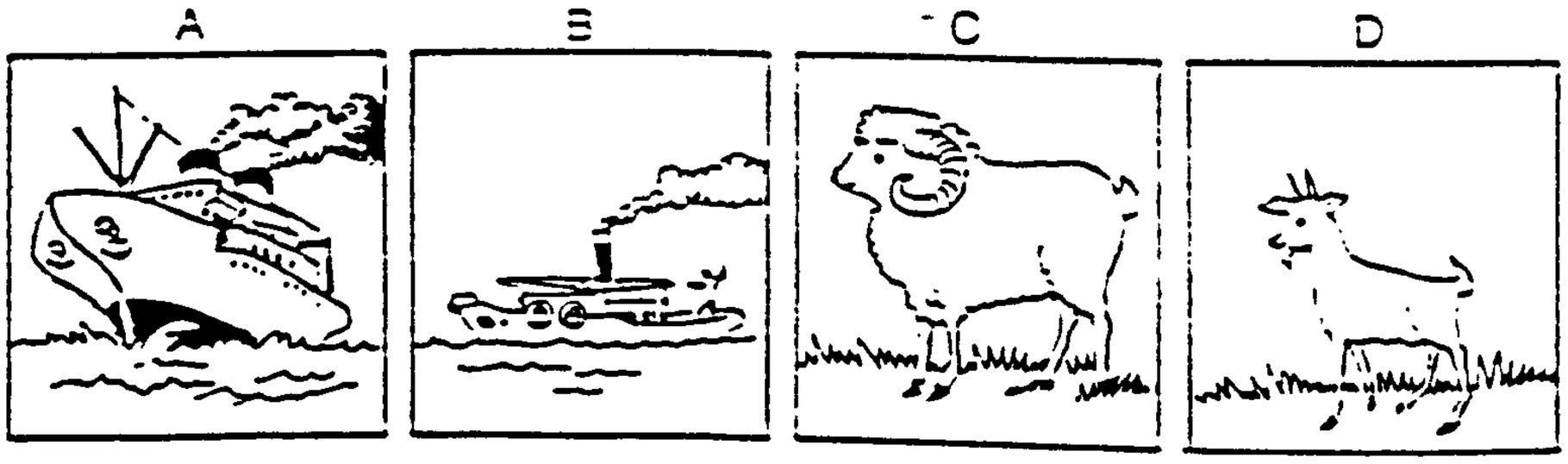
13.



14.



15.



END OF TEST

測驗告終

412

How do you think about English learning?

This questionnaire is set to help your English teacher understand how you think about learning English. Please answer as directed by the instructions and fill in the questionnaire accurately. You DON'T have to put down your name.

Thank you very much for your co-operation!

A. Please answer all the questions by putting a "✓" in the space next to the answer which is true to you.

1. Date of entry to secondary school:
   Sept. 1988 ____ Sept. 1989 ____ Other Date _____ (please specify)

2. Type of primary school you graduated from:
   Chinese medium ____ English medium ____

3. How would you describe your father's command of English language?
   None ____ Rather poor ____ Fair ____ Quite good ____ Excellent ____

4. How would you describe your mother's command of English language?
   None ____ Rather poor ____ Fair ____ Quite good ____ Excellent ____

5. Do your parents encourage you to learn English well?
   Yes, often ____ Sometimes ____ Hardly ever ____

6. Do your parents help you with your school work?
   Yes, often ____ Sometimes ____ Hardly ever ____

7. Do you watch TV programmes shown on the English channel?
   Yes, often ____ Sometimes ____ Hardly ever ____

8. Do you like to read English story books in your leisure?
   Yes, often ____ Sometimes ____ Hardly ever ____

9. Do you have any friends whose mother tongue is English?
   Yes ____ No ____

B. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a " " in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	____	____	____
11. I find English difficult to learn.	____	____	____
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	____	____	____
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	____	____	____
14. I like English lessons.	____	____	____
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	____	____	____
16. I work hard in English.	____	____	____

	Yes	Not Sure	No
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	____	____	____
18. I think I am no good at anything.	____	____	____
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	____	____	____
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	____	____	____
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	____	____	____
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	____	____	____
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	____	____	____
24. I am good at English.	____	____	____
25. I don't know why I learn English.	____	____	____

End of Questionnaire
Thank You !!

How do you think about English learning?

This questionnaire is set to help your English teacher understand how you think about learning English. Please answer as directed by the instructions and fill in the questionnaire accurately. You DON'T have to put down your name.

A. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a " " in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	____	____	____
11. I find English difficult to learn.	____	____	____
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	____	____	____
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	____	____	____
14. I like English lessons.	____	____	____
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	____	____	____
16. I work hard in English.	____	____	____

	Yes	Not Sure	No
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	____	____	____
18. I think I am no good at anything.	____	____	____
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	____	____	____
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	____	____	____
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	____	____	____
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	____	____	____
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	____	____	____
24. I am good at English.	____	____	____
25. I don't know why I learn English.	____	____	____

B. Please give your opinions to the following questions frankly:

1. Do you find the English lessons this year different from your previous English lessons?
   If your answer is 'Yes', please write down the differences.

   Do you like these differences?

   If your answer is'No', do your like the present situation?
   Do you wish to have any changes?

2. Do you like English lessons? Yes ____ So-so ____ No ____

3. Do you find your motivation to learn English raised during year?

   Yes ____ Not sure ____ No ____

4. How many books have you read for the reading scheme launched this year?

   Do you think the reading scheme has motivated you to read more books?
   Yes ____ A Little ____ No ____

   What is your opinion to the reading scheme?

End of Questionnaire
Thank You!

ACADEMIC SELF-IMAGE SCALE

Joan Barker-Lunn (1970) developed a short measure of the child's view of himself in terms of school work. The scores range from 18 (good academic self-image) to 0(poor academic self-image).

	ITEM	RESPONSE		
		HARDLY EVER	SOME-TIMES	YES, OFTEN
1	I get lots of sums wrong	(2) YES	(1) NOT SURE	(0) NO
2	I think I'm pretty good at school work	(2) NEVER	(1) SOME-TIMES	(0) YES, OFTEN
3	I'm useless at school work	(2) YES	(1) NOT SURE	(0) NO
4	My teacher thinks I'm clever	ALWAYS (2)	SOME-TIMES (1)	HARDLY EVER (0)
5	I'm very good at sums	MOST OF THE TIME (2)	SOME-TIMES (1)	HARDLY EVER (0)
6	When we have tests I get very good marks	YES, OFTEN (2)	SOME-TIMES (1)	HARDLY EVER (0)
7	I find a lot of schoolwork difficult to understand	YES, OFTEN (0)	NOT SURE (1)	HARDLY EVER (2)
8	I sometimes think I'm no good at anything	YES, TRUE (0)	NOT SURE (1)	NO (2)
9	I dont' seem to be able to do anything really well at school	(0)	(1)	(2)

Appendix 12b

Scores for the Academic Self-image Scale
(Based on scores of Barker-Lunn's Academic Self-image Scale)

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	(0)	(1)	(2)
11. I find English difficult to learn.	(0)	(1)	(2)
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	(2)	(1)	(0)
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	(0)	(1)	(2)
14. I like English lessons.	(2)	(1)	(0)
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	(2)	(1)	(0)
16. I work hard in English.	(2)	(1)	(0)

	Yes	Not Sure	No
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	(2)	(1)	(0)
18. I think I am no good at anything.	(0)	(1)	(2)
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	(0)	(1)	(2)
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	(2)	(1)	(0)
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	(0)	(1)	(2)
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	(2)	(1)	(0)
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	(2)	(1)	(0)
24. I am good at English.	(2)	(1)	(0)
25. I don't know why I learn English.	(0)	(1)	(2)

Appendix 13a

Questions for the First Interview

1. Which primary school do you come from?

2. Do you find it hard to cope with the studies in secondary school? Why?

3. What is the difference, if any, between learning English in primary school and learning Enlgish now?

Questions for the Second Interview

Oral instructions to the students:
I would like to ask you some questions about your opinions to the different activities we have for the English lessons. Don't hesitate to give your real opinion as your responses will be very useful in helping the teacher to plan the curriculum in future.

First of all, there will be 9 activities for you to rate your preferences. Please rate them frankly by using a 5 point scale. 5 indicates the strongest preference you have of certain activity, while 1 indicates the least preference, and 3 indicates no special preference. Do you understand? If there is no other questions, let us start now.

	1	2	3	4	5
1. How much do you like these class activities?					
a. listening comprehension	___	___	___	___	___
b. composition writing	___	___	___	___	___
c. group/class experience story telling	___	___	___	___	___
d. reading comprehension (text book)	___	___	___	___	___
e. library lesson	___	___	___	___	___
f. dictation	___	___	___	___	___
g. test	___	___	___	___	___
h. grammar games	___	___	___	___	___
i. grammar exercises	___	___	___	___	___
2. How much do you like to read the following materials:					
a. your own writings	___	___	___	___	___
b. class/group experience stories	___	___	___	___	___
c. library books	___	___	___	___	___
d. text books	___	___	___	___	___
3. Do you like to use the word bank ?	___	___	___	___	___
4. a. How much do you like conferencing with the teacher?	___	___	___	___	___

b. Do you prefer to have an individual or a pair conference? Why?

Individual conference ___

Pair conference ___

5. Do you have any anxiety telling the individual experience stories?

6. Do you have any suggestions to the English lessons?

Focus questions and experience stories of "My New School"

Appendix 14

8th September 1989.

My New School

1. What do you feel about the school environment?

I feel the school environment is very good, because it has a big swimming pool, a big sports ground, a school hall, many trees, a fountain, many laboratories and a library. So I like my school very much.

(Shan-Shan, Yuen-Yee, Suk-Wen, Wai-Fong)

2. What do you know about the school?

Facilities and Special Rooms:
1) Swimming pool 2) Laboratory (Lab.) 3) Library
4) Dancing Room 5) Cookery Room 6) Audio-Visual Room
7) Needle-work Room 8) English Room 9) Garden
10) Gymnasium (Gym.)

Activities:
1) Red Cross 2) Girl Guide 3) Road Safety Patrol
4) Student Union

(Kit-Ling, Kit-Wah, Yuen-Yee, Wai-Yan)

3. What did you find most interesting on the first day of school?

Every one is wearing their own clothes but we have to wear cheung-sam.

(So-Wan, Kar-Lam, Kar-Yee, Sau-King)

4. How did you feel when you first wore cheung-sam as the school uniform?

I felt very hot. It was very tight. It was not convenient for me to walk and run.

(Wendy, Siu-Wai, Lai-Yung)

5. What was your first impression of the teachers?

Miss Lee is a kind teacher and she likes to talk. She is our Geography teacher. She has taught for six years in our school. Most of the teachers ....

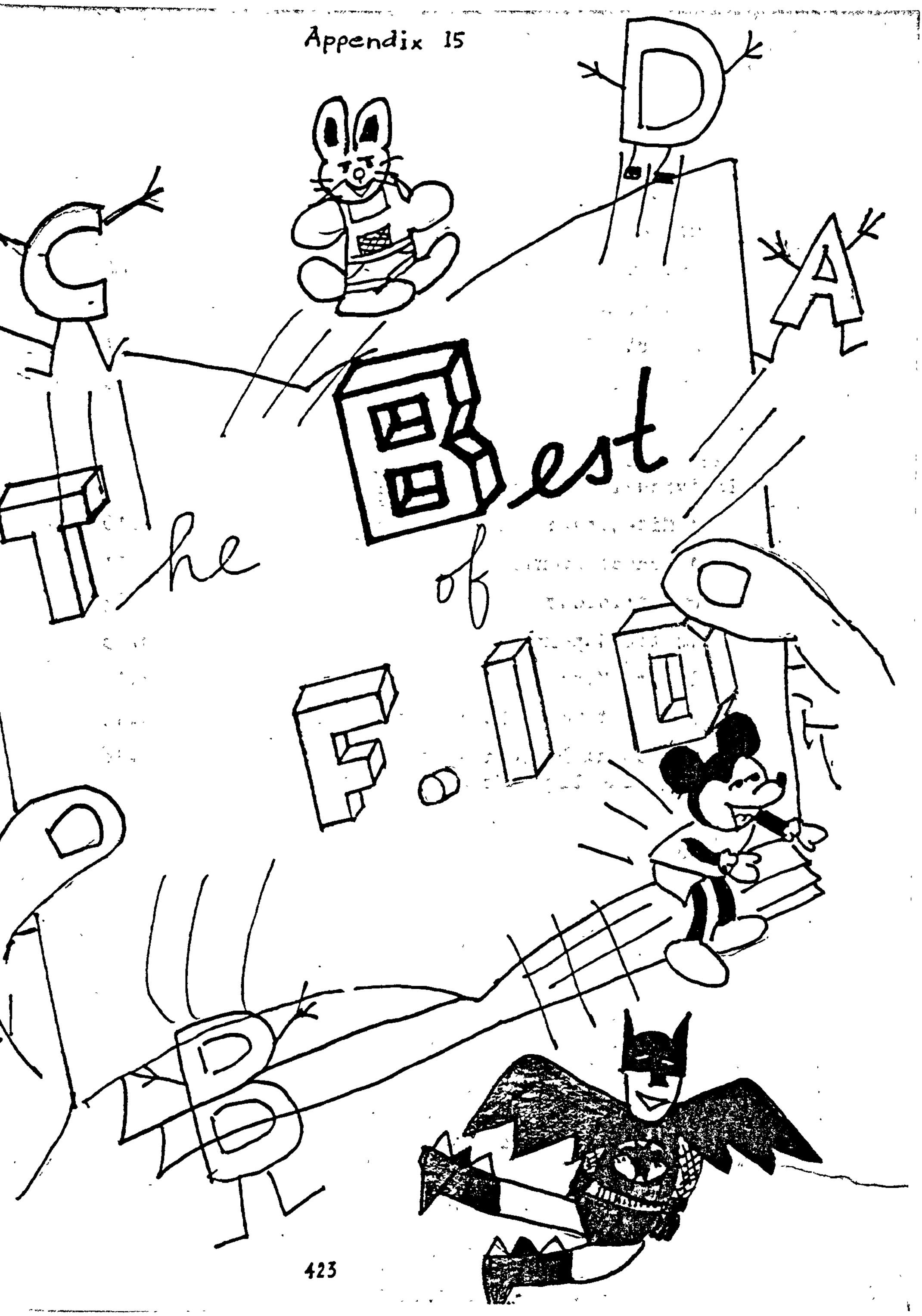
(Connie, Emily, Man-Wai)

6. How do you find your classmates?

My classmates are very quiet. They like helping people.

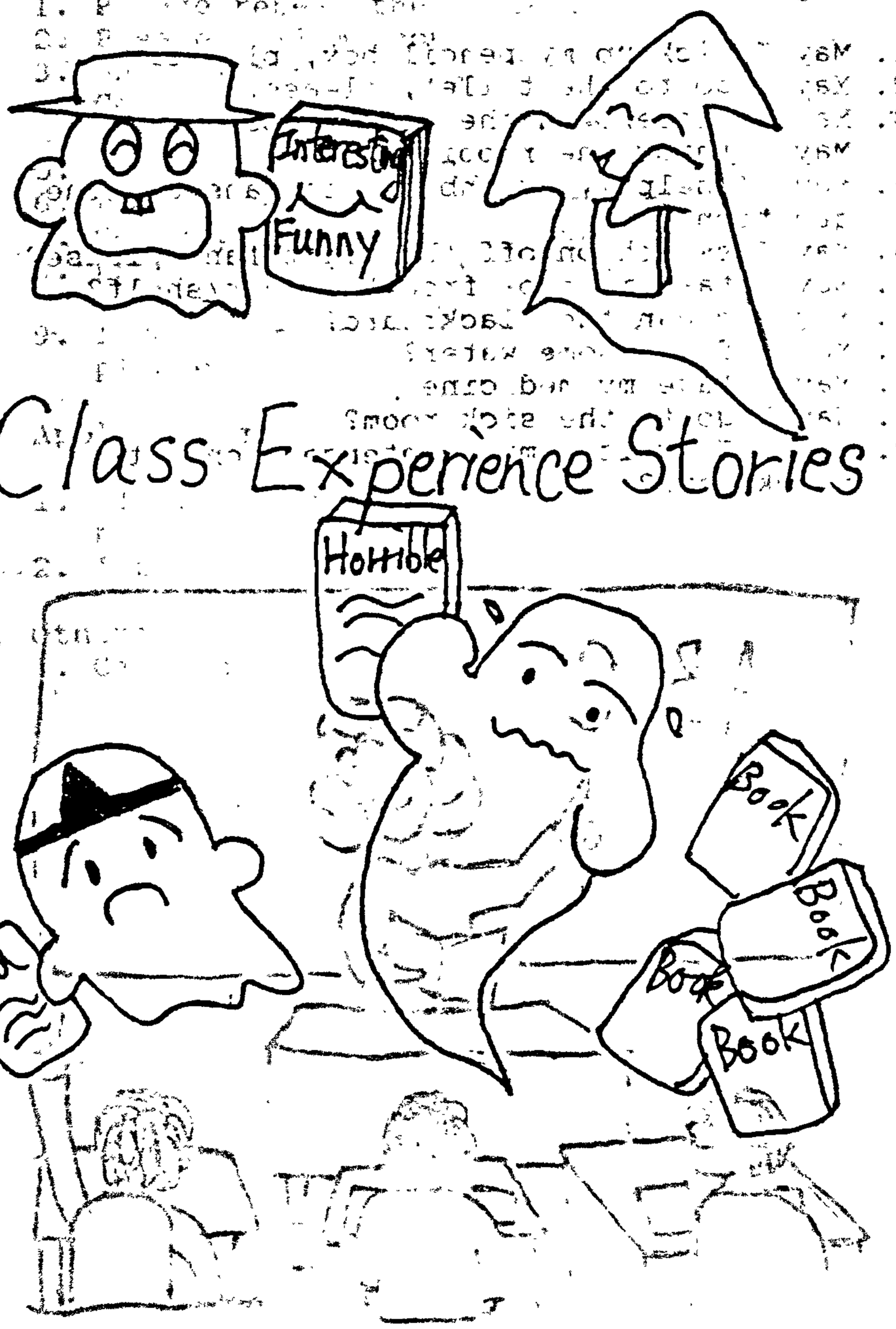
(Ling-Kum, Pui-Yan, Wai-Ling)

Appendix 15



CONTENTS

PART ONE



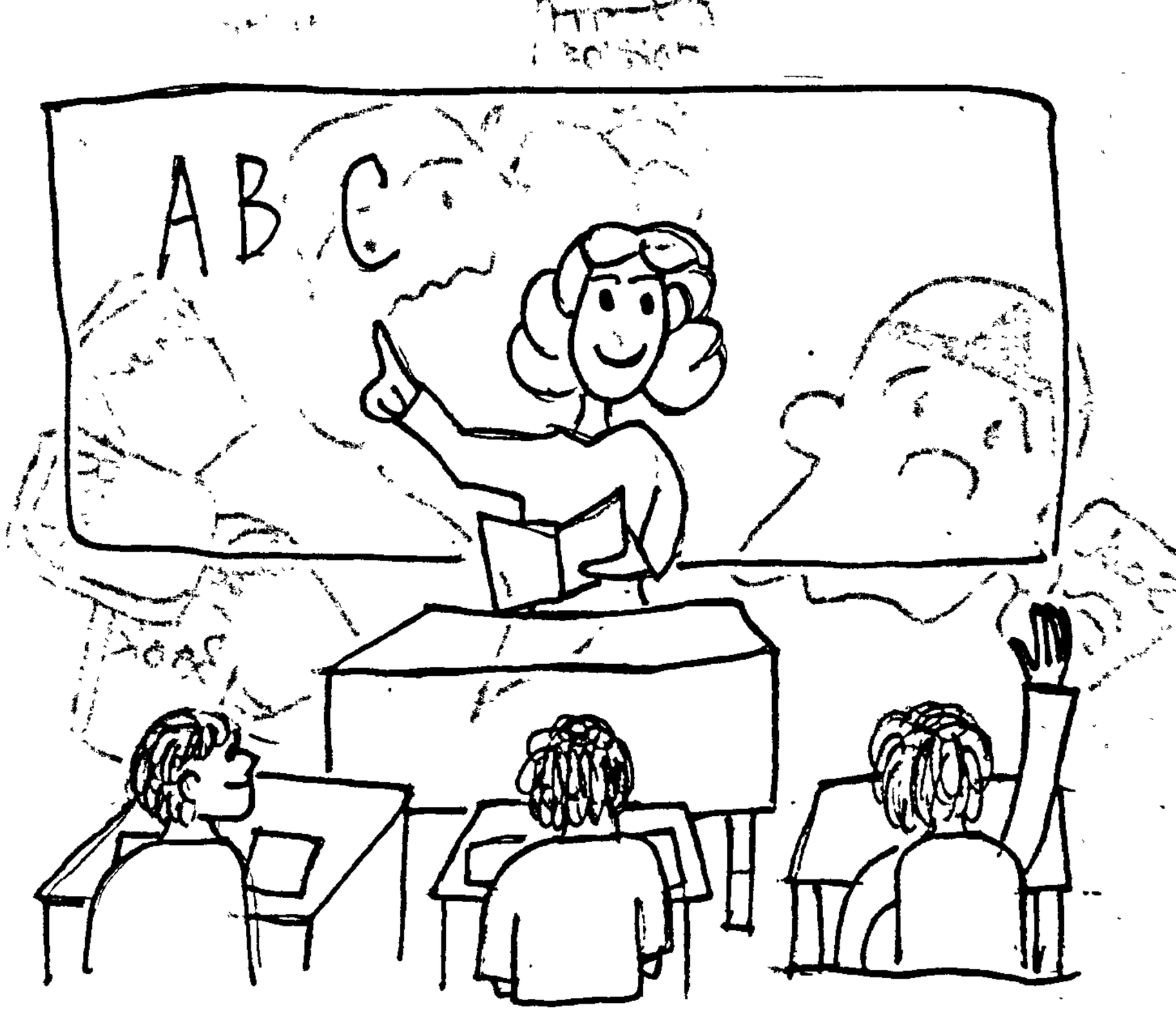
Class Experience Stories

PART ONE

Classroom English

A. Asking for permission:

1. May I pick up my pencil box, please?
2. May I go to the toilet, please?
3. May I close/open the window/door?
4. May I throw the rubbish?
5. May I help my neighbour to answer the question?
6. May I switch on/off the light/fan, please?
7. May I take my book from the desk/shelf?
8. May I clean the blackboard?
9. May I drink some water?
10. May I take my medicine?
11. May I go to the sick room?
12. May I write my sentence on the blackboard?



B. Asking for help:

1. Please repeat the sentence.
2. Please tell me how to do this homework?
3. What is the meaning of this word?
4. Could you close/open the door/window, please?
5. Excuse me. Could you read it again?
6. Please tell me how to spell this word.
7. Could you speak louder, please?
8. Excuse me. Please tell me how to say _____ in English.
9. I don't understand. Could you explain it, please?

C. Apologizing:

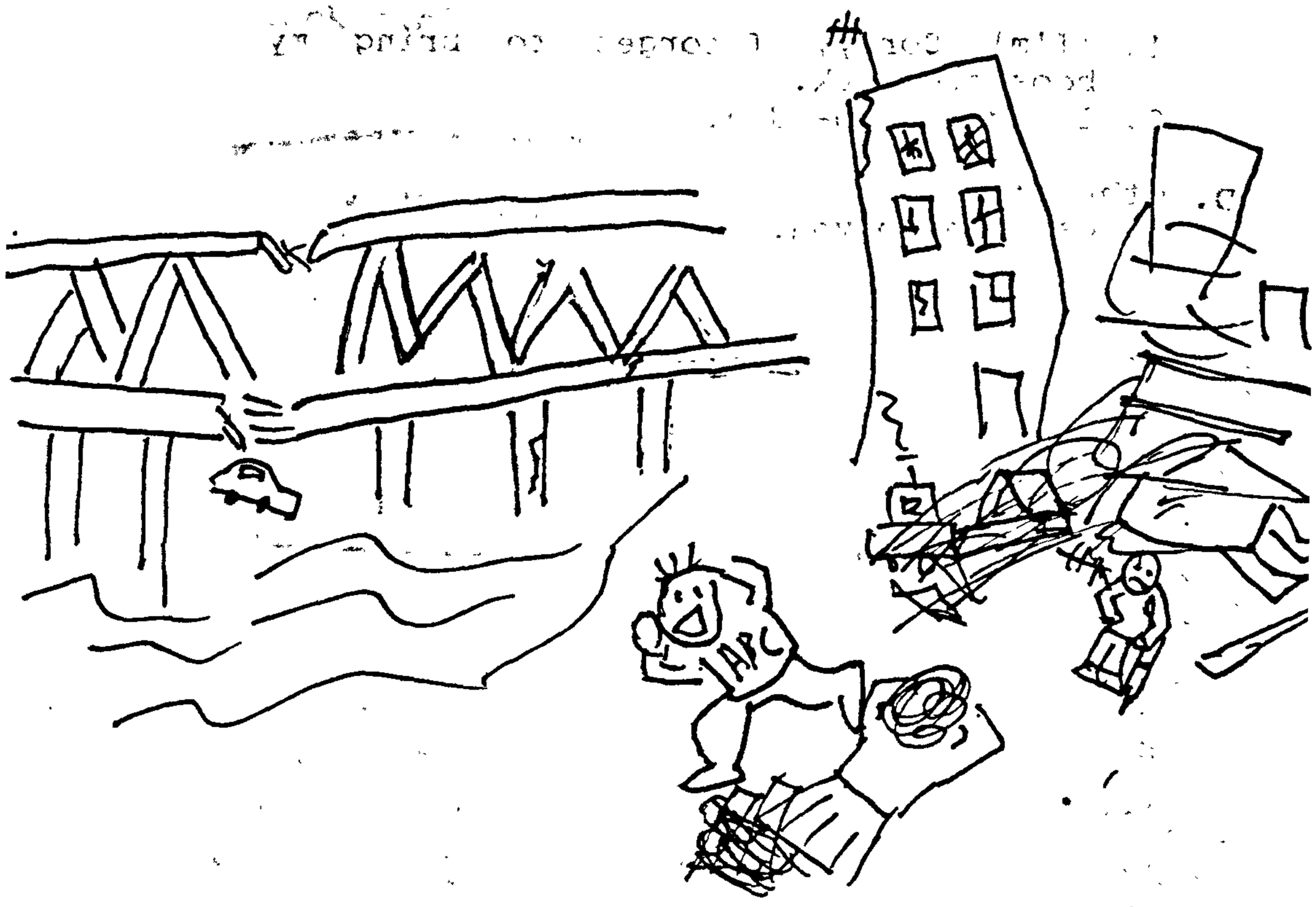
1. (I'm) Sorry, I forget to bring my book/homework.
2. I beg your pardon.

D. Others:

1. Can I help you?

The Earthquake

In San Francisco, there was an earthquake. About one thousand people died. Lots of houses fell down. A highway collapsed. Many people were crushed to death. The ambulance could not reach the scene. The police will not stop their work because they found a five-year-old child in a crushed car.

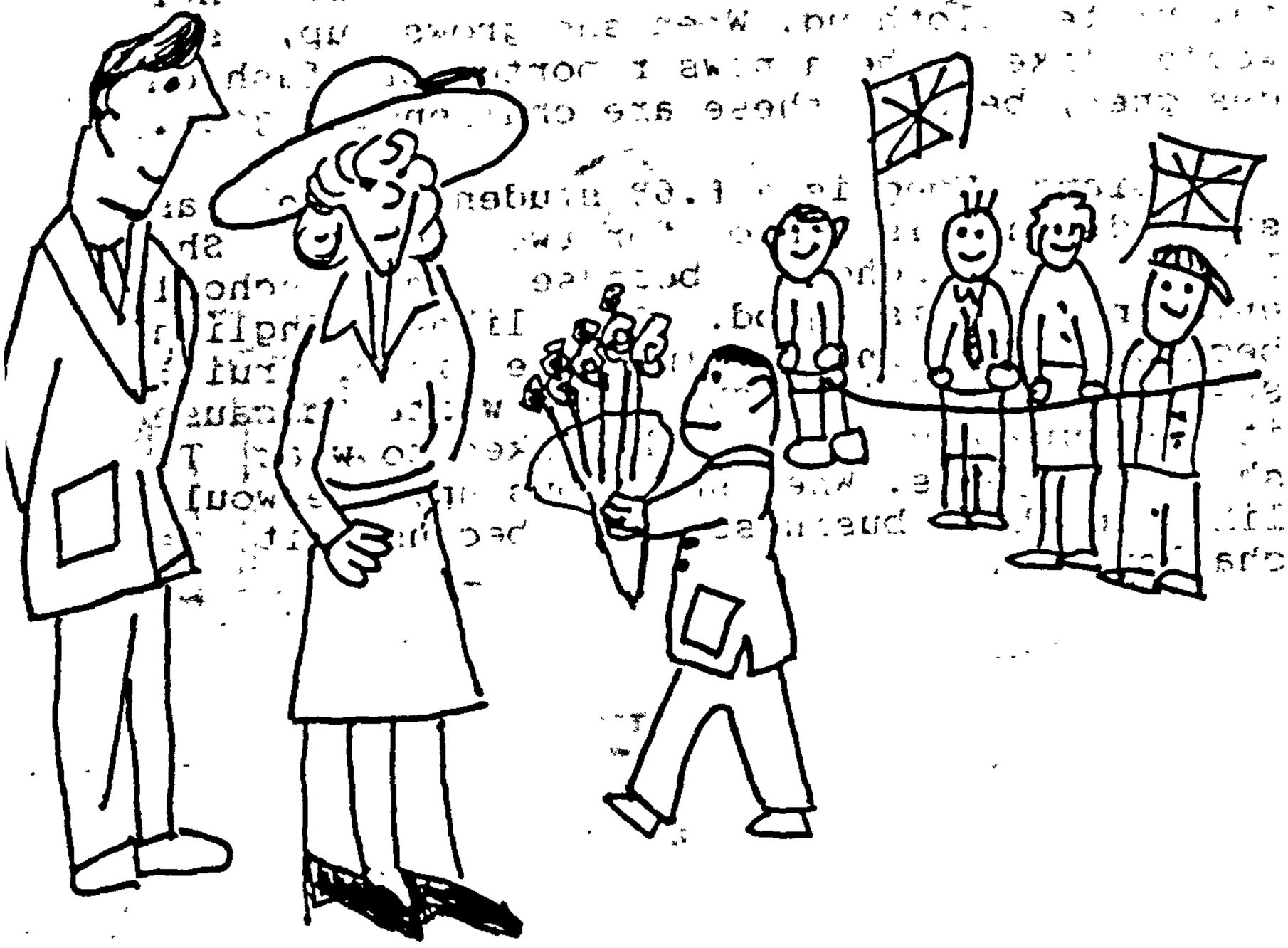


The First Day of the Royal Visit

Prince Charles and Princess Diana came to visit Hong Kong two weeks ago. On the first day, they went to the Edinburgh Square. There was a welcoming ceremony at this place. There were many exciting programmes performed by many young people.

A little actor, Pak Lum Cheng, presented some flowers to Princess Diana. When the Governor of Hong Kong saw this, he smiled; but Prince Charles looked jealous.

Princess Diana was graceful. She wore a suit of sharp colours. Her coat was red, her blouse was yellow and her skirt was purple. She also wore a purple hat with a red ribbon. The fashion designer, Tina Lau, praised her taste of clothes.



Report of an Interview

I. Introduction

Our group interviewed three F.6 students on 9th November, 1989 in the English Room. We asked them some questions about their favourite things.

II. Information about the Students

Hydie is a F.6B student. She has studied in this school for five years and two months. She likes the school because it is big. She likes Economics and Chinese History because she likes to think about many things of the society. She likes to eat duck, chicken and vegetables. She likes reading and swimming. Her favourite colours are blue and black, because the black colour can make her look slim. Dress, shirt and T-shirt are her favourite clothing. When she grows up, she would like to be a news reporter or fashion designer, because these are challenging jobs.

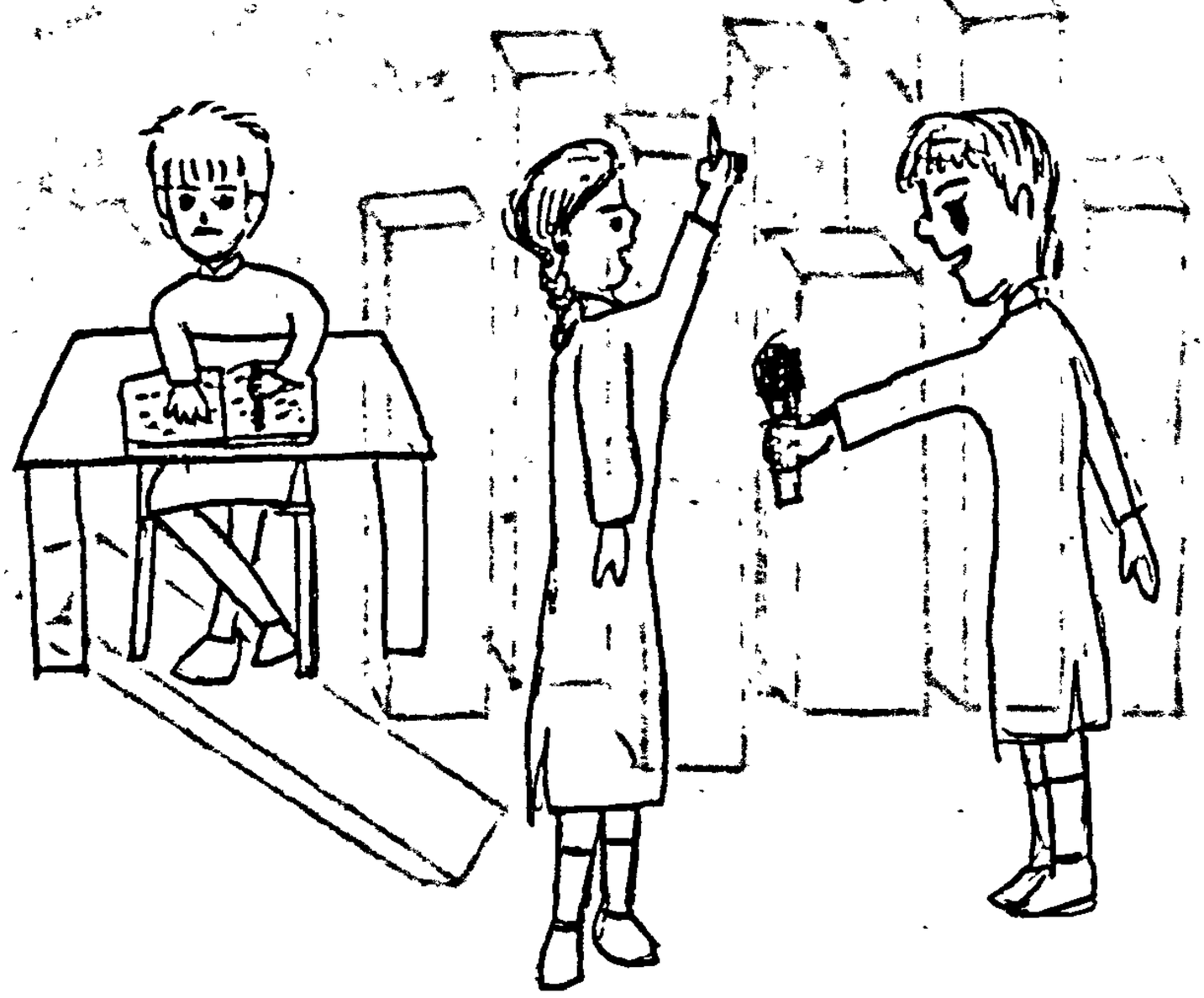
Diana Wong is a F.6B student. She has studied in this school for two months. She likes the school because the school environment is good. She likes English because it is interesting. She likes fruit. She likes swimming. She likes white because it is pure and simple. She likes to wear T-shirt and jeans. When she grows up, she would like to be a business woman because it is challenging.

Miranda Cheung is a F.6B student. She has studied in this school for three months. She doesn't like the school because it is far away from her home. She likes Geography because it is a very easy subject to understand. Her favourite food is Japanese food. Reading and swimming are her hobbies. She likes brown. Her favourite clothes are shirts and jeans. When she grows up, she would like to be a photographer because she likes to catch the beautiful views.

III. Conclusion

From the interview, we found that all the three girls like to wear T-shirts and jeans and two of them like the school. We did not enjoy the interview because some of their answers were difficult and boring.

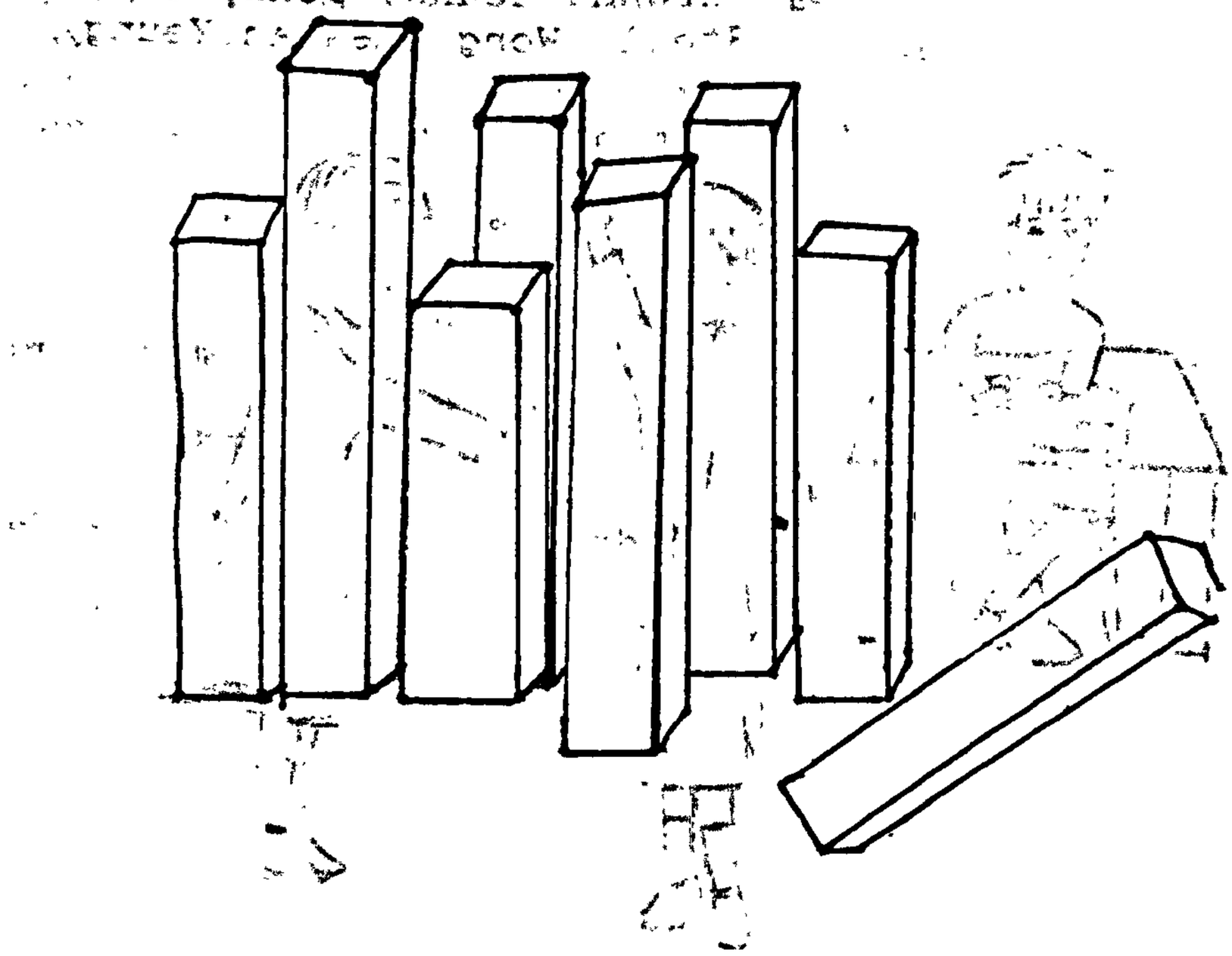
by Miranda Leung, Jenny Liu,
Stella Wong, Sarah Yeung



Building a figure with some coloured rods

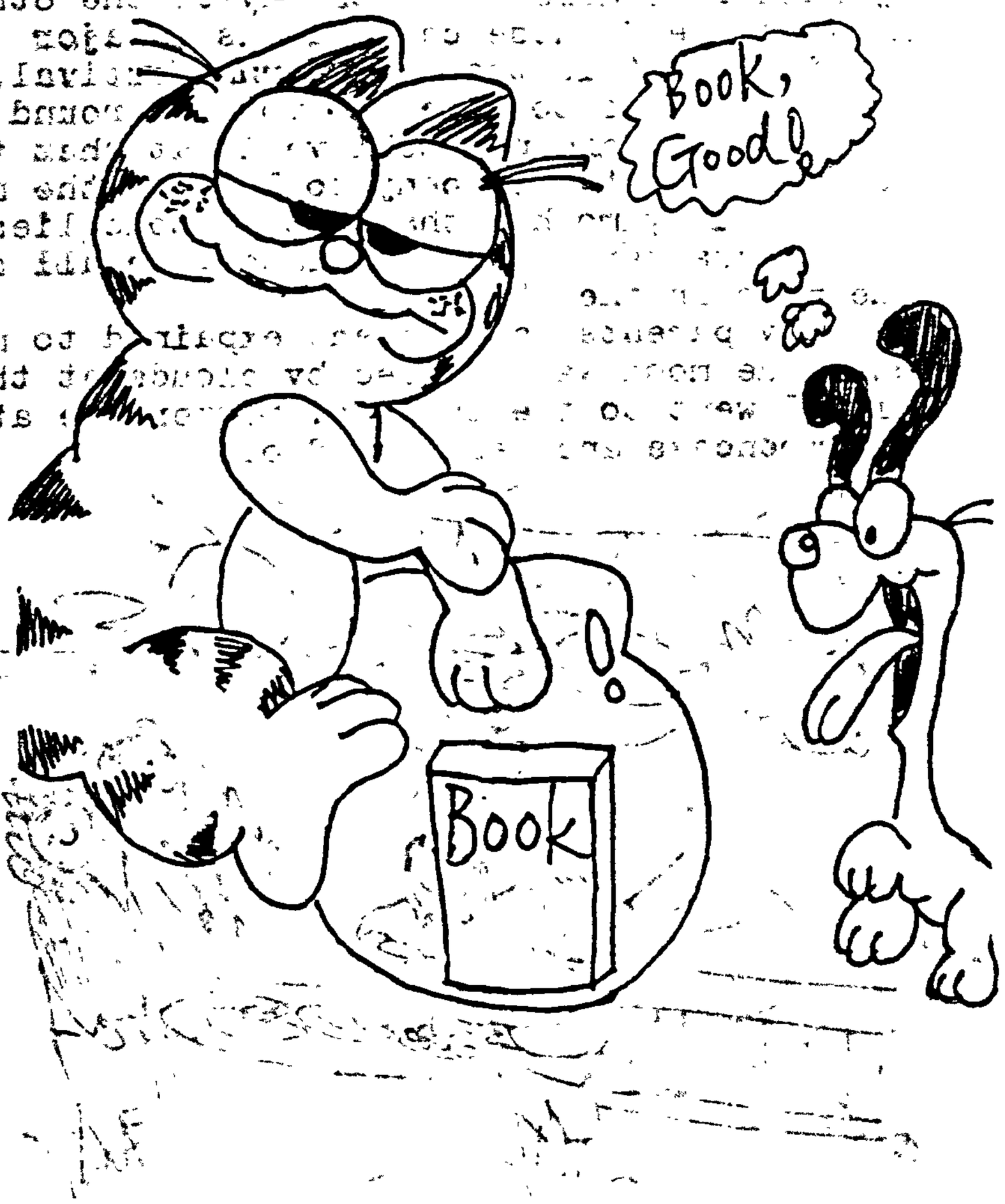
First, put the orange rod horizontally in front of you. Put the brown rod on top of the orange one, and then put the black rod horizontally on top of the brown rod. Put the two light green rods one at each end of the brown rod. Put the yellow rod on top of the light green rods. Put the red rod vertically on top of the middle of the yellow one.

by Amy Leung, Sonia Yan, Jessica Wan, Kar Yee Yung



PART TWO

Individual Experience Stories

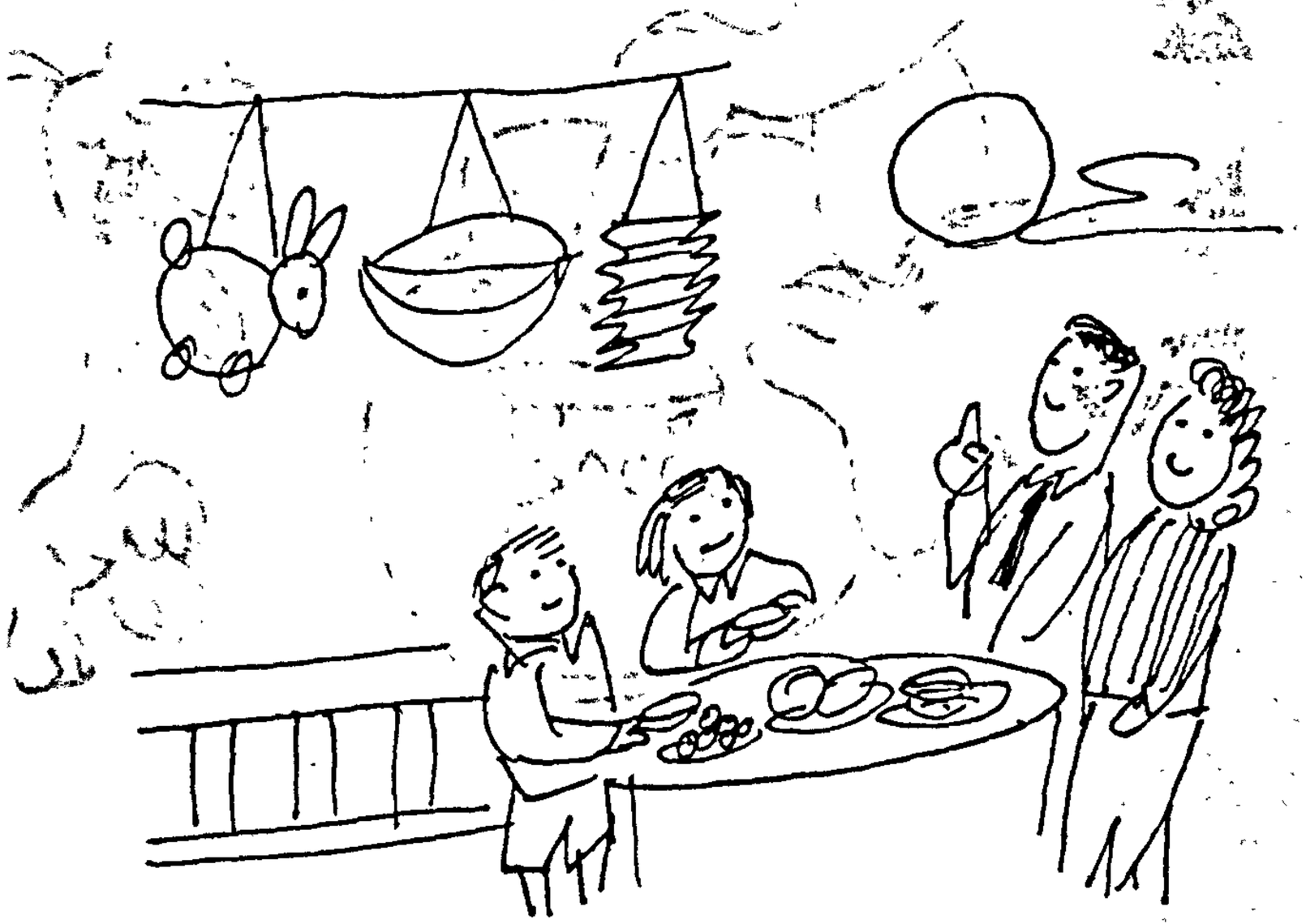


A Mid-Autumn Festival In My Childhood

I remember when I was four years old, my father told me the 15th day of the 8th moon in the Chinese calendar is a major festival. It is the Mid-Autumn Festival. My father also told me the moon is round in that day. I did not believe it at that time so I went to the balcony to look at the moon so I told my mother that father told lies.

A quarter of an hour later, we all saw the moon in the sky.

My parents laughed and expained to me that the moon was covered by clouds at the time I went to the balcony. Later, we ate the mooncake and festival foods.



A School Picnic

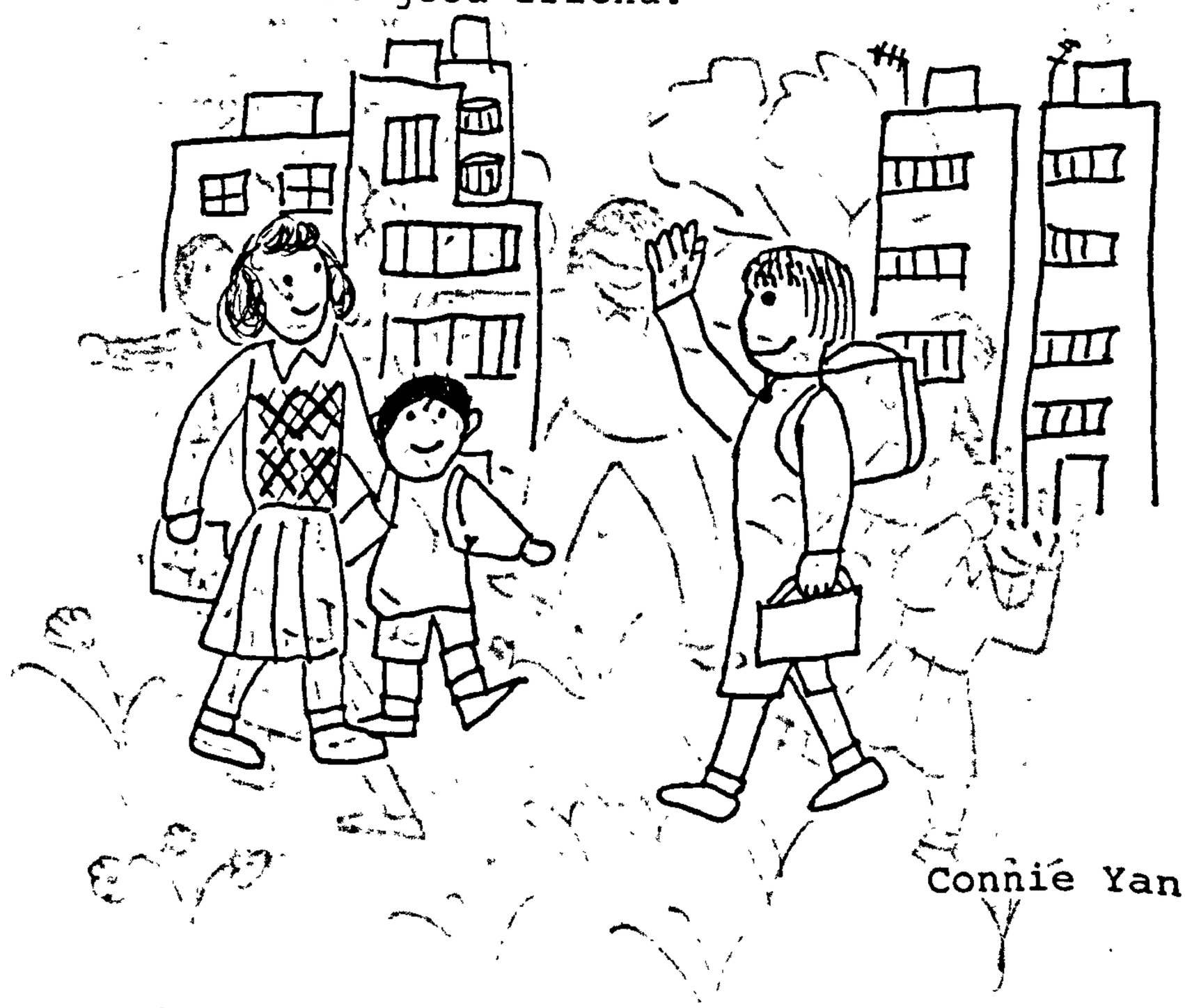
Last Tuesday, at nine o'clock in the morning. I went for a school picnic. I went to Tai O Mun with my classmates. This place was very beautiful but very far form school. Many people played with kites because it was a windy day. The water was very clear. I played with my classmates happily.I hope to go picnicking again.

Yeung Wai Fong

My Neighbour

My neighbour's name is Emily Wong. She is a helpful, easy-going and quiet person. She lives in Wan Chai. She has two brothers and one sister. Her mother is a housewife.

On the first day of school, I sat next to her. I found she knew many things because she is a repeater. Although she is a repeater, she is still very hard-working. She is willing to help me. So she and I are good friend.



Connie Yan

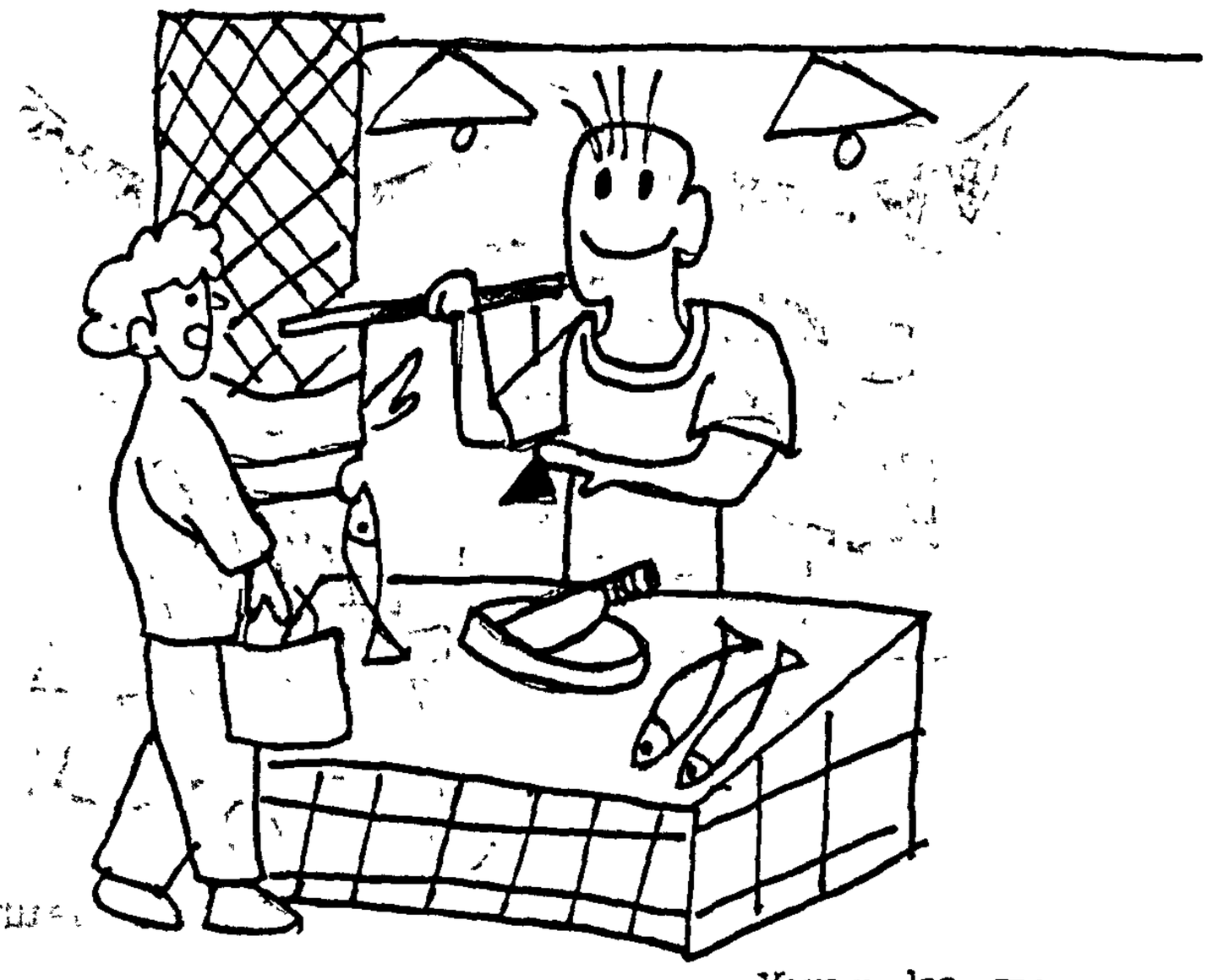
In the market

Yesterday I went to the supermarket. I saw a man. He picked up some chocolate bars and put them into his bag. He stole many chocolate bars and drinks. He did not pay at the cashier and went out of the supermarket. At once I went to the cashier and told the cashier what the man did. Then the cashier went out of the supermarket to look for the man, but he did not know where the man was. He asked the people in the supermarket to tell him what the man looked like.

Leung Wai Yan

In the market

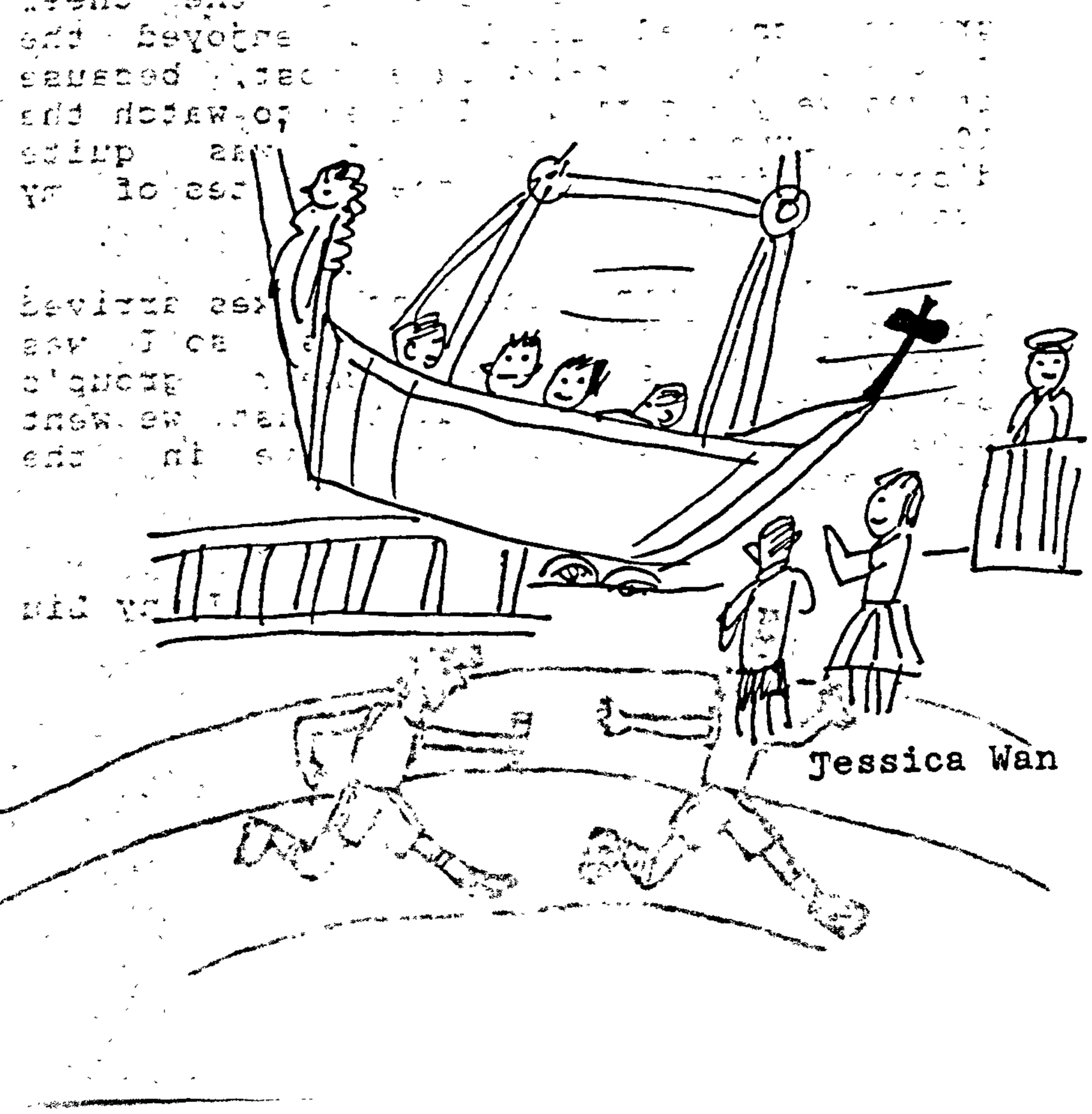
Yesterday my mother, my bother and I went to the market to buy some food. In the market. I saw some stalls and hawkers. My mother bought some fish, meat, and fruit. My brother and I help my mother to carry some food. I like go to the market because I can see many different kinds of fish.



Yung ka yee

A DAY AT OCEAN PARK

One day, my father, mother, brother and I went to Ocean Park. We went to Ocean Park by bus. When we arrived there, my brother was happy, because he enjoyed swimming. We went to the Water World first. After swimming for an hour, we went to the Park. My mother and father sat in the restaurant. My brother and I went for the mechanical rides outside. We played the 'Pirate ship' and we enjoyed it.



Jessica Wan

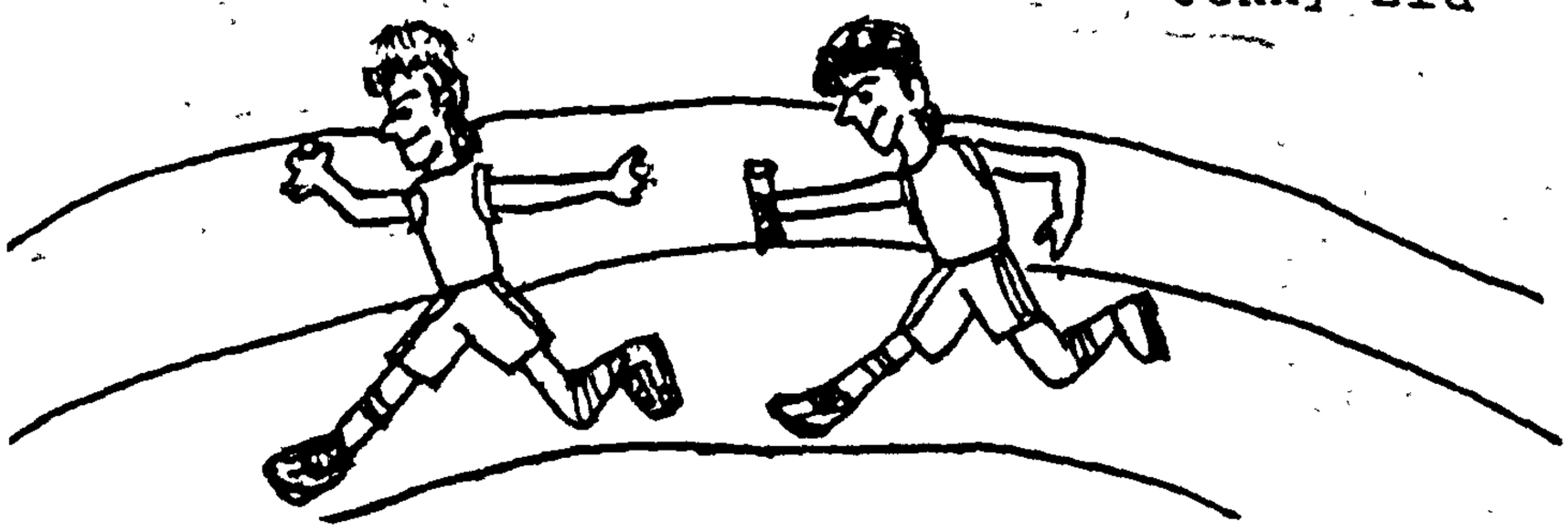
The Joint Athletics Meeting of True Light Schools

It was a cloudy day. The 4th Joint Athletics Meeting of True Light Schools was held on 23rd November at Wan Chai Stadium. There were many races, for example, running, high jump, long jump, shot put, 4x100m relay and 100m hurddle.

When the races started, the cheer groups cheered loudly. I enjoyed the teachers' 4x100m relay race most, because it was very exciting. I liked to watch the 100m running, too. It was quite disappointing because the athletes of my school always lost.

At lunch time, the lunch boxes arrived late and the food was tasteless, so I was hungry. I felt the cheer group's performance was very good. At last, we went home at a quarter past five in the afternoon.

Jenny Liu



EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

Ng Wai Ling — Emily Wong

Stella Wong — Kimberly Lo

Other Assistants

Wendy Wong — Sophia Wong

15th December 1989

True Light Middle School of Hong Kong

Appendix 16

13th February 1990.

Group Experience Stories
Can you further improve them?

An Accident

A. When I was nine years old. One night, in my dream I heard a noise. "BANG!" I found that I had fallen from the upper bunk. I felt the area around my right ear was very painful. At that time, my brain was empty. Today When I think back about the accident I still want to laugh.

(Sonia Yan, Mandy Leung, Fanny Leung, Sarah Yeung)

B. I saw an accident last week on the Tai Hang road, when I went home for lunch, I saw a True Light's student,. was drown down by a taxi, her foot was white, I think the blood was go into another parts. Her hand and shower was hurt, later, an ambulance was came, and drove her to the hospital. Next day, I listened some Mrs. said shwe was well now.

I feel it was very terrible, because the smallest toe was hurt by the crush of the taxi's wheel.

(Kimberly Lo, Ling Kam Wei, Miranda Leung)

C. I heard the accident in radio. On Sunday, 4th February at about two o'clockk in the afternoon. There was a bus going to To Kwa Wan. Suddenly a boy was across the road. And the bus was collosion the boy. Then the boy was hurt seriously and later the boy was died.

(Vicky Woo, Jessica Wan, Jenny Liu)

D. I have seen an accident at last year. This happened near my home. I saw a taxi knocked down an old man. He head hurt in dnager. Later ambulance came, it came to take an old man to the hospital. I feel afraid.

(Stella Wong, Emily Wong, Cherrie Wong, Carol Liu)

E. At last week, I saw an accident. The accident was happened at North Point. I saw an old woman across the road, but suddenly the bus knocked down a woman, then a few minutes later, I saw a ambulance to help the old lady to the hospital. But on the next day, I saw the newspaper find the old lady died.

(Sophia Wong, Connie Yan, Wendy Wong, Wai Ling Ng)

E. Two years ago, outside the baker shop, there was an accident. I saw two buses collided, and two people were hurt. One of them broke his arm. Some ambulance men put them on a stretcher. The ambulance men put the brokken arm into a plastic bag and drove them to the hospital.

(Bessie Ngai, Amy Leung, Kit Wah Sin)

Letters of Reply to People with Problems

I'm 12 years old. I have no brothers and my sister is a baby. I want to have a dog, but my father says a dog will not be happy in a small flat. I am lonely at home. What should I do?

John Woo

Dear John,

Of course you have the right to make yourself happier, but you should also think of your parents' feelings. You mustn't be selfish. You needn't have a dog because you have a sister already. You can play with her often, so you will not feel alone again.

Yvonne, Sonia,
Mandy, Sarah

I want to learn to play a musical instrument, especially the guitar. For a short time I played a recorder, but the neighbours said I made a lot of noise. Should I join a club? How can I find one?

Ann Ng

Dear Ann,

You need to join a club. There must have a teacher teach how to play a musical instrument and people together learn. You must happy. You mustn't disturb people.

Carol, Agnes,
Cherie, Stella

I have a good friend and the other day I saw her steal some money from another girl's coat pocket. I love my friend but I am unhappy about her action. Perhaps she will steal again. Should I tell someone about it? I don't want to make trouble for my friend.

Sue Pang

Dear Sue,

You should tell her about you saw her stole some money in another girl's coat's pocket. Told her mustn't do it again. If she steal money again, you will tell to the teacher.

Amy, Vivian
Bessie, Kar Yee

Dear Jenny,

You can join the big sister plan, the sister will help you in English. and you needn't pay money, and she will help you to solve the problem. You can also change your way of study, and you should read more English books.

Kim, Jenny, Vicky
Shan, Ling Kam, Jssica

I study English at school, but my exam results are usually poor. English will be important for me if I want a good job in the future. I cannot go abroad because my parents are not rich. What should I do to improve my English?

Jenny Siu

I am 14 years old and I must stay at school for two more years. I hate school. I don't like any of my lessons, but I am good at sports. I hope to be a famous basketball player and play for Hong Kong. I am not interested in studying, but my father expects me to do well in my exams. Should I talk to him? What should I say?

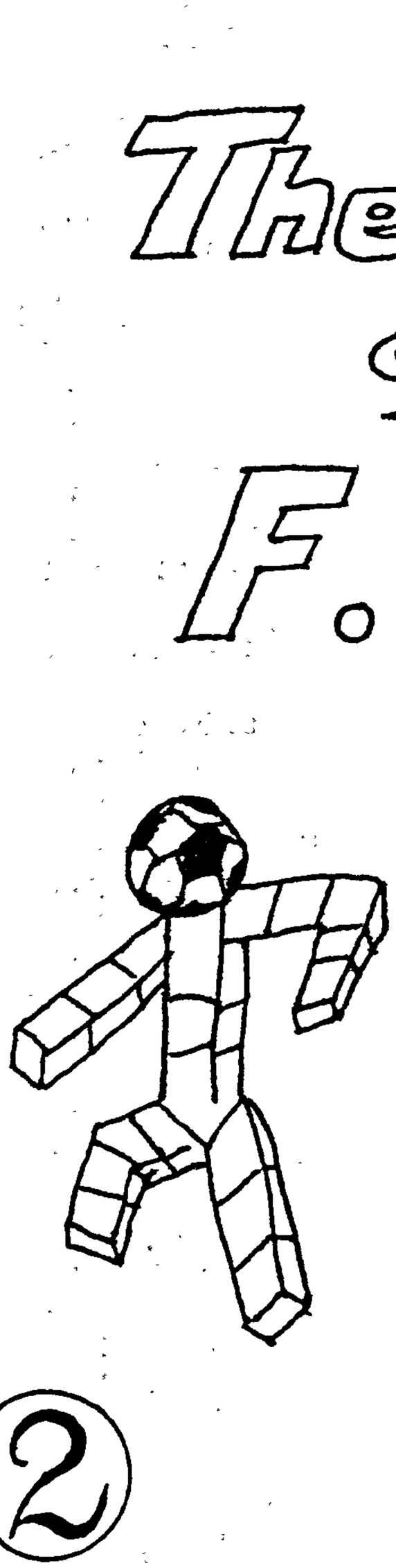
Tom Fong

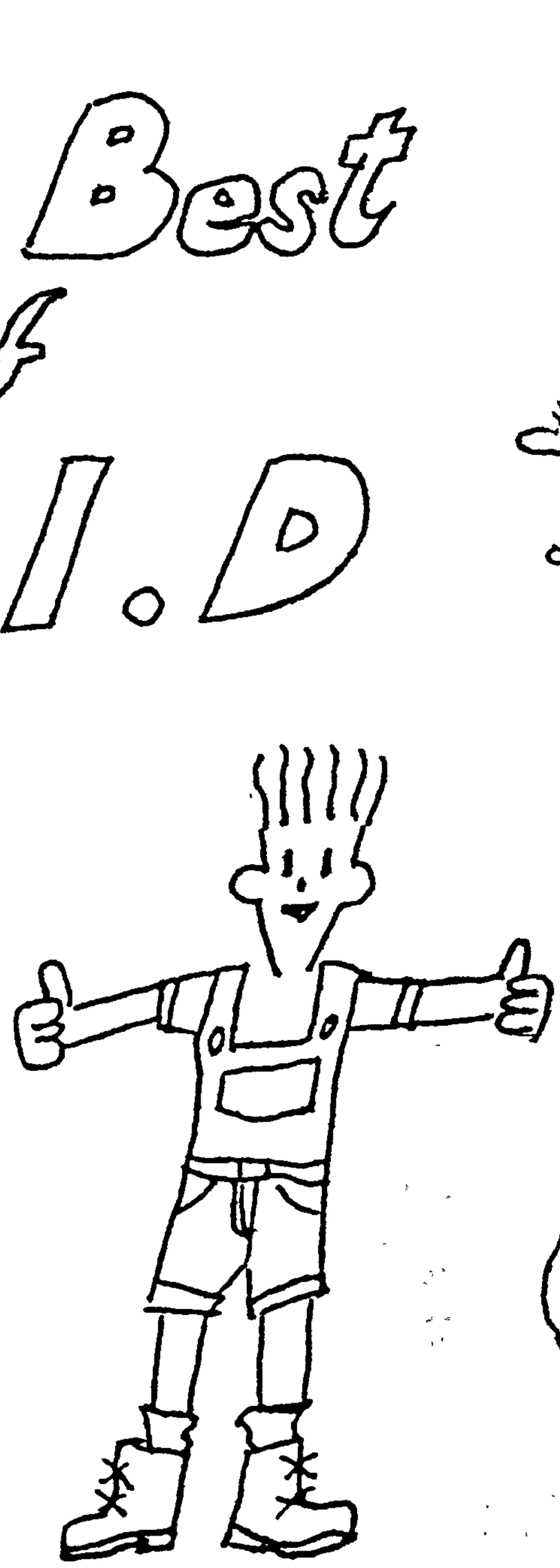
Dear Tom,

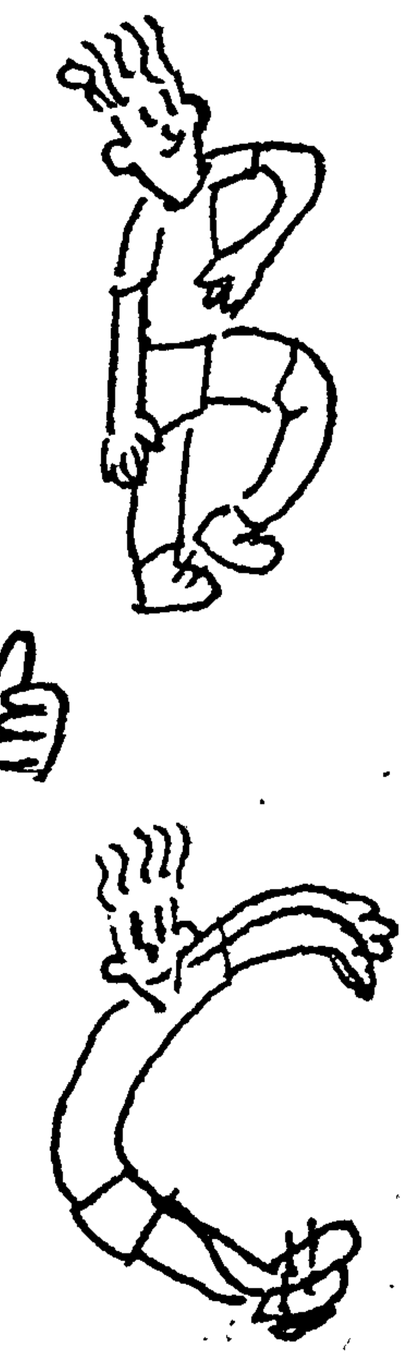
You should talk to your father. You can say: in fact you do not like studying. You want to be a famous basketball player. You hope your father will allow you play basketball.

Wendy, Connie,
Sophia, Wai Ling

The Best of F.I.D



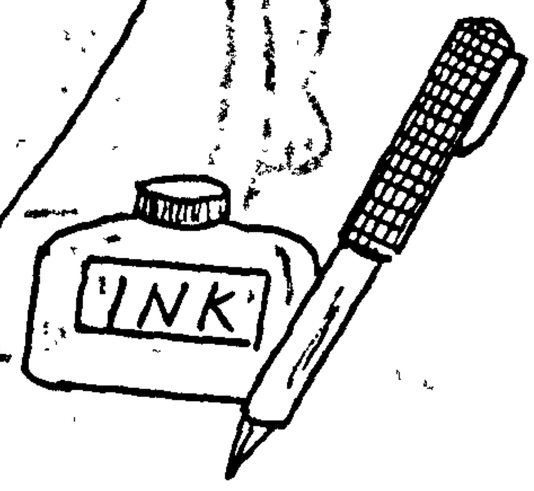




CONTENTS

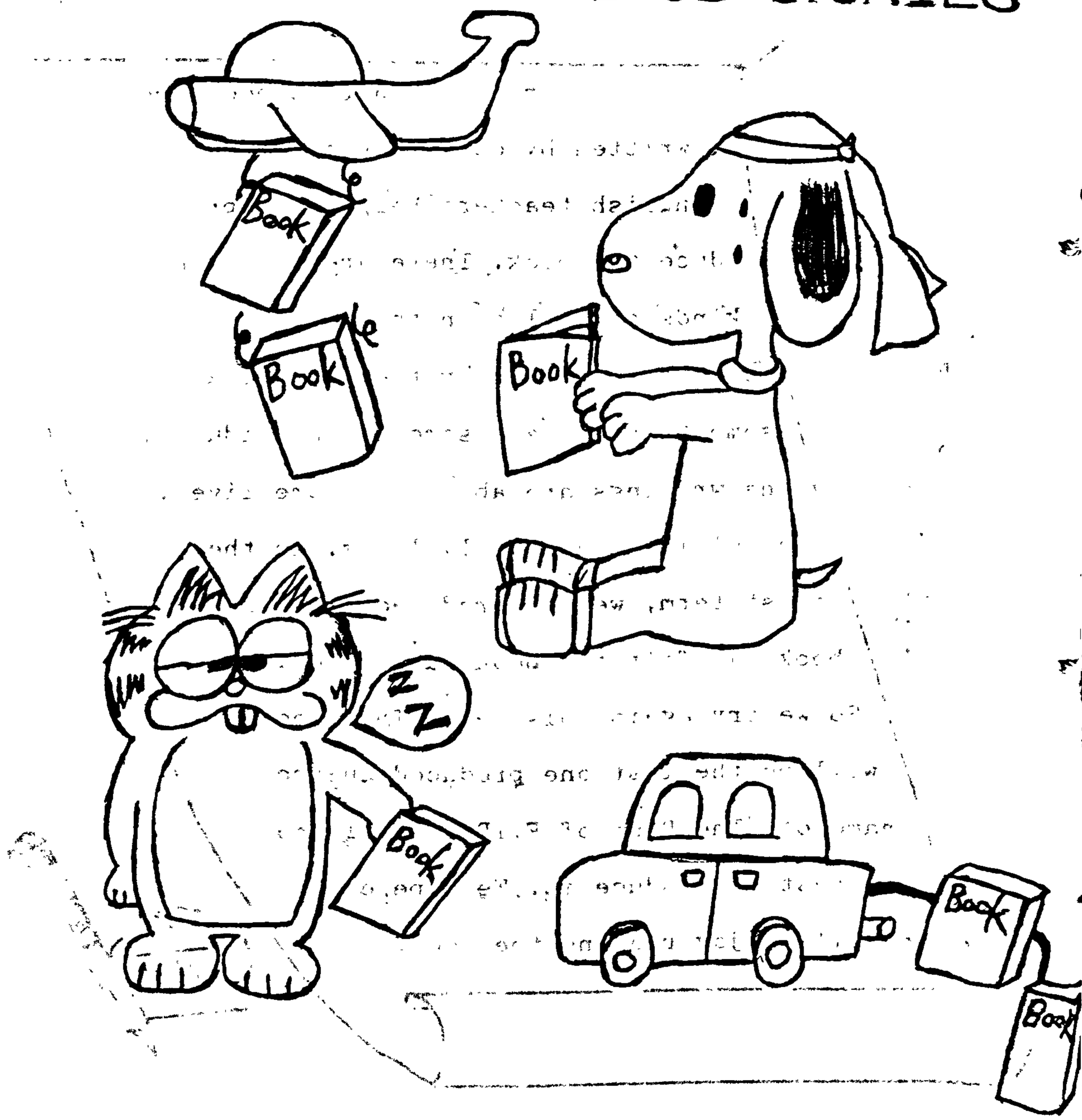
FROM THE EDITOR

The writings in this book are written by our classmates. Our English teachers help us to produce the book. There are different kinds of styles in the writings. Some are written by the whole class, some in pairs and some by individuals. The writings are about our home lives, school lives and daily lives. In the first term, we produced a similar book. We felt the book was quite good. So we try again this term. This book will be the last one produced in the name of "The Best of F.1D". We all do our best to produce it. We hope everyone will enjoy reading the book.



PART 1

CLASS EXPERIENCE STORIES



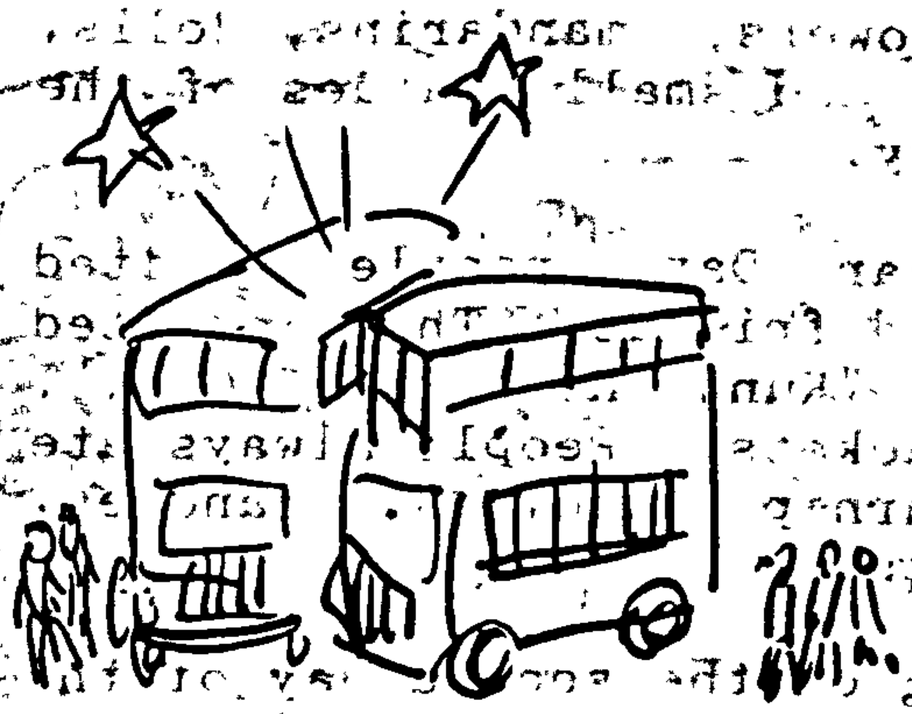
An Accident (Group Work)

A.

I saw an accident last week on Tai Hang road. When I went home for lunch, I saw a True Light student knocked down by a taxi. Her foot was crushed and it was white. Her hand and shoulder were hurt. Later, an ambulance came and drove her to hospital. I feel it was very terrible, because her toes were hurt by the taxi's wheel. On the next day, I heard from a lady that the girl was better.

by Kimberly Lo,
Ling-Kam Wei,
Winnie Leung

B.



Two years ago, there was an accident outside a bakery. I saw two buses collided, and two people were hurt. One of them broke his arm. Some ambulance men put the broken arm into a plastic bag and drove them to hospital.

by Bessie Ngai,
Amy Leung
Kit-Wah Sin

The Chinese New Year

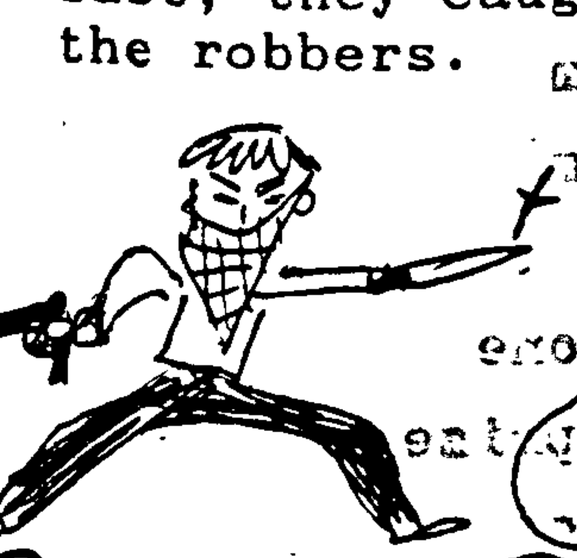
This is the Year of the Horse. On the New Year's Eve. many people went to the Victoria Park flower market. There were many stalls selling different things, e.g. daffodils, plum flowers, mandarins, dolls, handbags, balloons and small statues of the Goddess of Democracy.

On the New Year Day, people visited their relatives and friends. They greeted each other with "Kung Kei Fat Choi". Children got red packets. People always ate rice puddings, turnip puddings, candies, melon seeds and nuts.

In the evening of the second day of the Chinese New Year, there was a fireworks display at the Victoria Harbour. It was very beautiful and lots of people watched the display.

A Robbery

Yesterday, there was a robbery at Jordan Road in Yaumati in the evening. King Fook Jewellery Shop was robbed. There were five robbers. After robbing, they ran away. Some policemen ran after them. The robbers fired at them. They injured one policeman and three pedestrians. Later, one of the pedestrians died. The policemen tried to find the robbers by blocking the roads. At last, they caught one of the robbers.

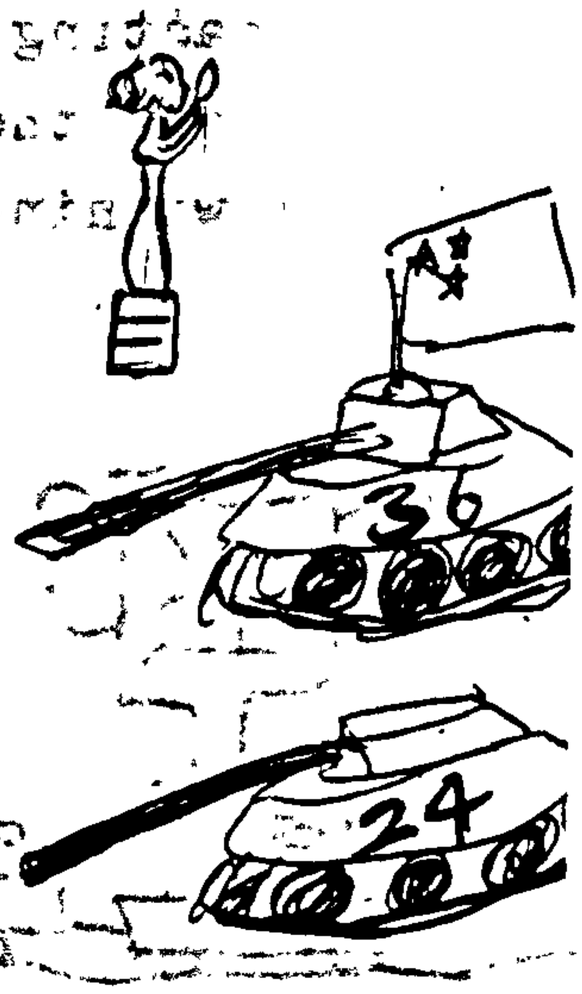


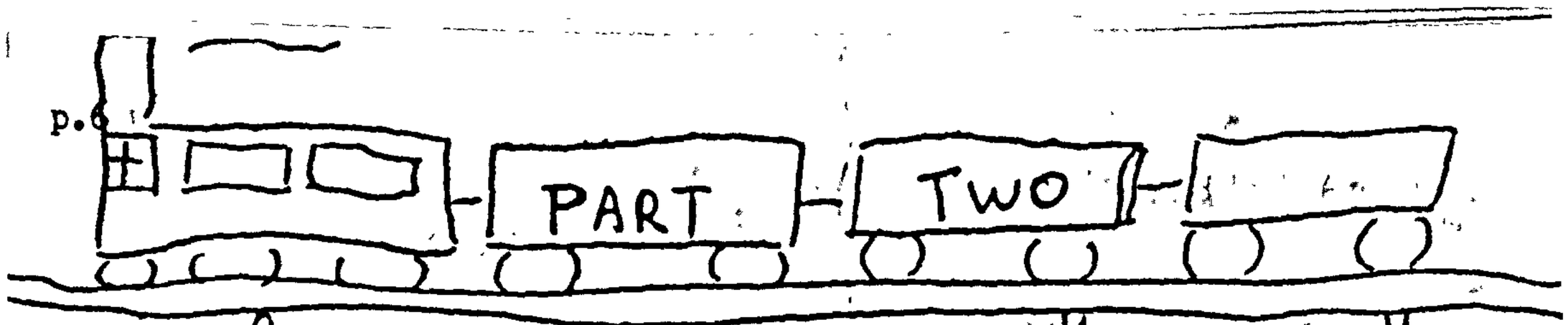
Cold Days

In these two days, Hong Kong turns very cold. So many people are sick. The temperature is around 10°C to 13°C. In the morning, we don't want to get up because the weather is very cold. When the children go to school, they have to wear many clothes. Our fingers are stiff, and when we touch the water, our fingers seem to freeze.

A SPECIAL DAY

There was a large procession yesterday to commemorate the June 4th killing. About 250,000 people joined the march. They walked to the NCNA(New China News Agency)to protest against the anti-democracy movements in China.





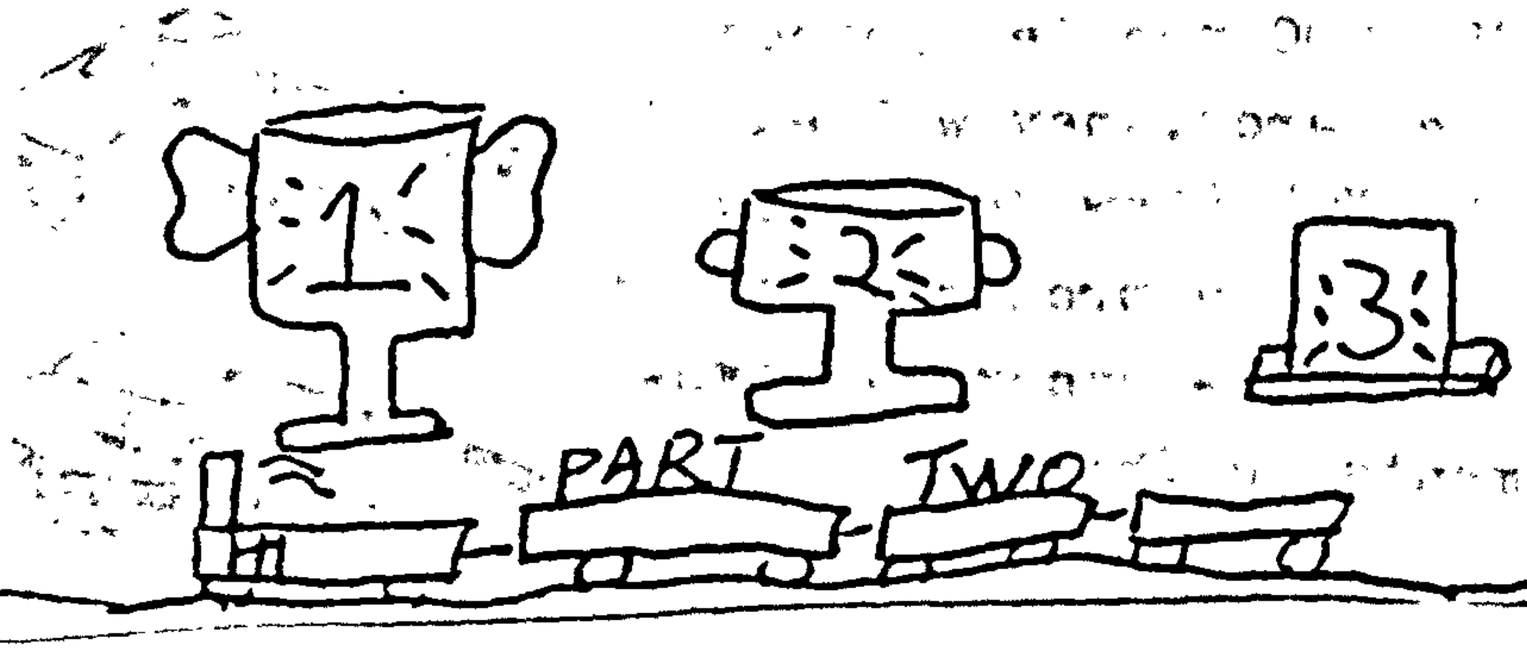
PLAY COMPETITION

SCRIPTS

On 9th March, we had an English play competition. That day, there were six teams in our class joining the competition. Three teams were from Group A, and three teams were from Group B. Two teams of Group B won the first and the second prizes, and one team from Group A won the third prize.

We enjoyed the play competition because we had the experience of acting on the stage. The followings are the play scripts of the prize-winning teams.

YVONNE LEUNG, JESSICA WAN



The Birthday Party
(First Prize)

Narrator: Shan Shan's family has just got a new Philippine maid. She cannot speak and read Chinese. Today is Shan Shan's birthday, but her parents have gone to another country. She is very lonely, so she will hold a birthday party at her home and she has invited some friends to her birthday party.

Shan Shan: MaryAnn, this afternoon will be my birthday party. Can youn make a cake for me?

MaryAnn: Yes, mad'm. I am a good cake maker. I'll make you the best birthday cake.

Shan Shan: Please start to make the birthday cake quickly because my friends will arrive soon. I am going to decorate the room and prepare the party's food.

MaryAnn: Yes, I am making the cake now. (She goes into the kitchen.) Make a cake? Well, I need some butter, eggs, flour and sugar.( )Sugar? Where is it put? Oh, this is like sugar. (She picks up some salt and starts working.) First, put some butter and sugar in the bowl and break in the eggs, then put in the flour and stir them together. That's very nice. Put it in the oven.

(The door bell rings, Shan Shan opens the door)

Friends: Happy birthday, Shan Shan.

(They give presents to Shan Shan.)

Shan Shan: Thank you for your presents. I'm so glad you could come. Please come in.

Wai Ling: The smell is wonderful. Can you tell me where the smell comes from?

Shan Shan: Oh, MaryAnn is baking the birthday cake.

Sarah: MaryAnn?

Shan Shan: She is the new Philippine maid of our family. MaryAnn, can you make four glasses of lemon coke for my guests?

MaryAnn: Yes. Lemon? Is this a lemon? Oh, yes. This is a big lemon. (She uses two grapefruits for the lemon coke and goes to the sitting room.) Mad'm, here is the best lemon coke for your friends.

(The friends drink the lemon coke.)

Wai Ling: It's awful.

Sarah: Yes, it is.

Shan Shan: MaryAnn, what have you put in?

MaryAnn: The big lemon.

Shan Shan: Oh my dear! It's grapefruit, not lemon.

Sarah: Never mind. She's new.

MaryAnn: Oh! The birthday cake should be ready. (She enteres the kitchen and takes out the cake from the oven.) Let me put some cream on it. (She sprays some mousse on the cake and brings the cake to the girls.) The cake is ready. You can eat now.

Wai Ling: Let's sing the birthday song.

(They sing together. Then Shan Shan cuts the cake and divides it for her friends.)

Shan Shan: Try one.

Wai Ling: What kind of smell is this cream.

Shan Shan: Oh! This is mousse.

Sarah: Why is the cake salty?

Shan Shan: Oh! she must have put in salt and not sugar.

MaryAnn: I'm sorry, mad'm. I'll never make the same mistakes again.

Wai Ling: Shan Shan, we'll go now. We don't feel well.

Sarah: Thank you for your party.

Shan Shan: I'm really sorry, Wai Ling and Sarah. Thank you for coming. (The friends leave.) MaryAnn, I must send you to a cooking course!

by Jenny Liu, Winnie Leung, Wai Ling Ng, Bessie Ngai, Sophia Wong, Sarah Yeung, Kar-Yee Yung

A Black Present sent by the Devil
(Second Prize)

Names of characters:

Queeny (who lives in the slum of Hell); Queeny's mother; Emily, Vicky, Amy, and Clara (Queeny's friends); Stranger (the hand of devil)

Narrator: Queeny who lives in the slum of Hell is sitting in front of her wooden hut and reminiscing about her unforgetable birthday party two years ago .....

(The door bell rings and Queeny opens the door.)

Friends: Happy birthday!

Queeny: How nice to see you. I'm so glad you could come. Please come in.

Friends: These are birthday presents for you, Queeny.

Queeny: Thank you very much.

Friends: You are welcome.

Narrator: They were playing so happily that they had forgotten to close the door. At this time, a stranger came in with a present. They ate and drank happily but they did not know that someone had come in. The stranger put down the present quietly on the table and then disappeared.

Queeny: Do you feel hungry? Mum, can we have the birthday cake?

(Queeny's mother comes in with a birthday cake.)

Mother: Let's sing the birthday song. Ready, One, Two Three:

Narrator: They ate the birthday cake and then they wanted to open the presents.

Emily: Do you know what this is?

Queeny: This is ..... (She wants to open one of the presents.)

Clara: Hang on!

Queeny: I think this is chocolate.

Amy: So do I.

Vicky: It's for you. I think you will like it.

Queeny: Oh! What a lovely doll! (then she looks at a big parcel.) Who sent me this present?

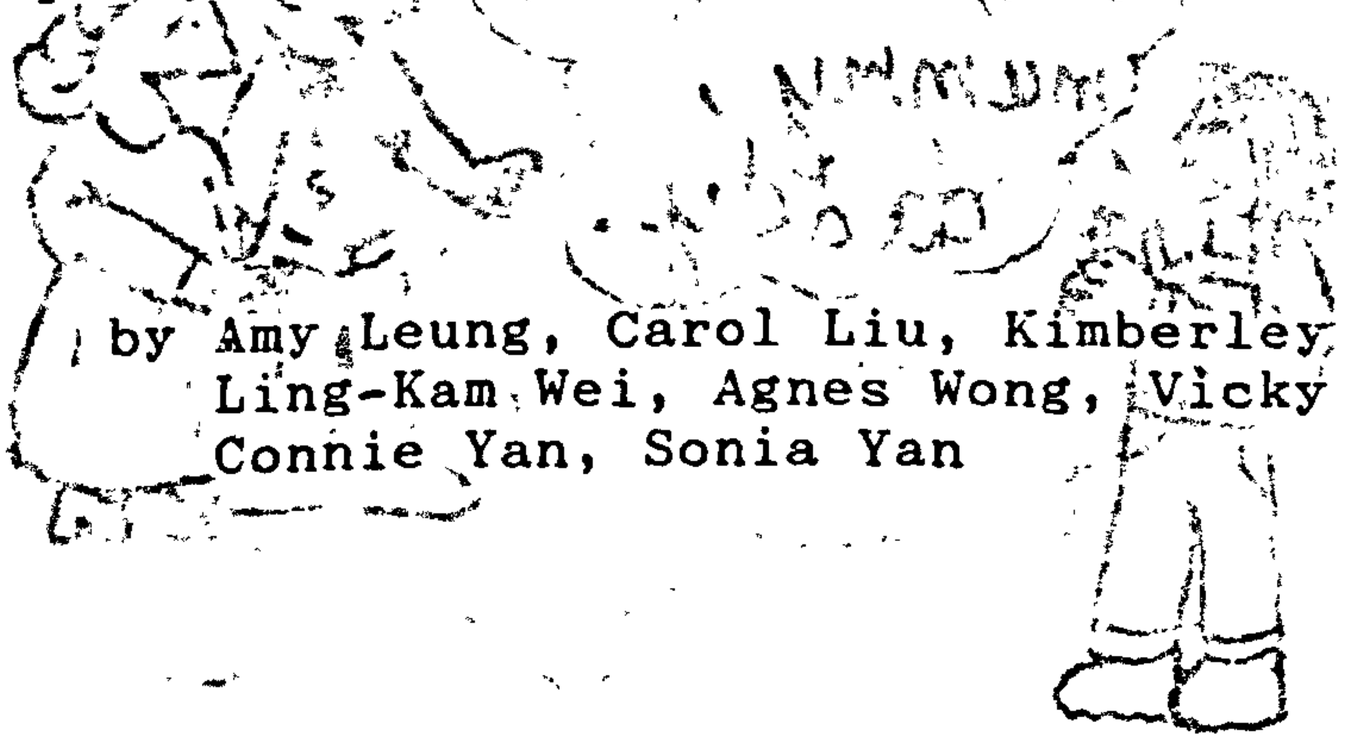
Friends: Let us have a look.

Queeny: Okay.

(When Queeny opens the present, a devil's hand comes out suddenly and catches Queeny's neck tightly.)

Narrator: Poor Queeny died soon after, and that is why she is sitting here in Hell, thinking about the past.

Queeny: It's really an unforgetable birthday party!



by Amy Leung, Carol Liu, Kimberley Lo, Ling-Kam Wei, Agnes Wong, Vicky Woo, Connie Yan, Sonia Yan

A Birthday Party (Third Prize)

Characters: Alex, Alex's mother, Alex's father, Tracy, Joan, Joni, Natalie.

Place : Alex's home.

Alex's mother: Alex, next Sunday is your birthday. Would you like to have a party?

Alex : Oh, It's a good idea, can I have it in the garden. If it rains, I'll have it inside the house.

Alex's father: Who will you invite?

Alex : I'll invite four of my classmates - Tracy, Joan, Joni and Natalie.

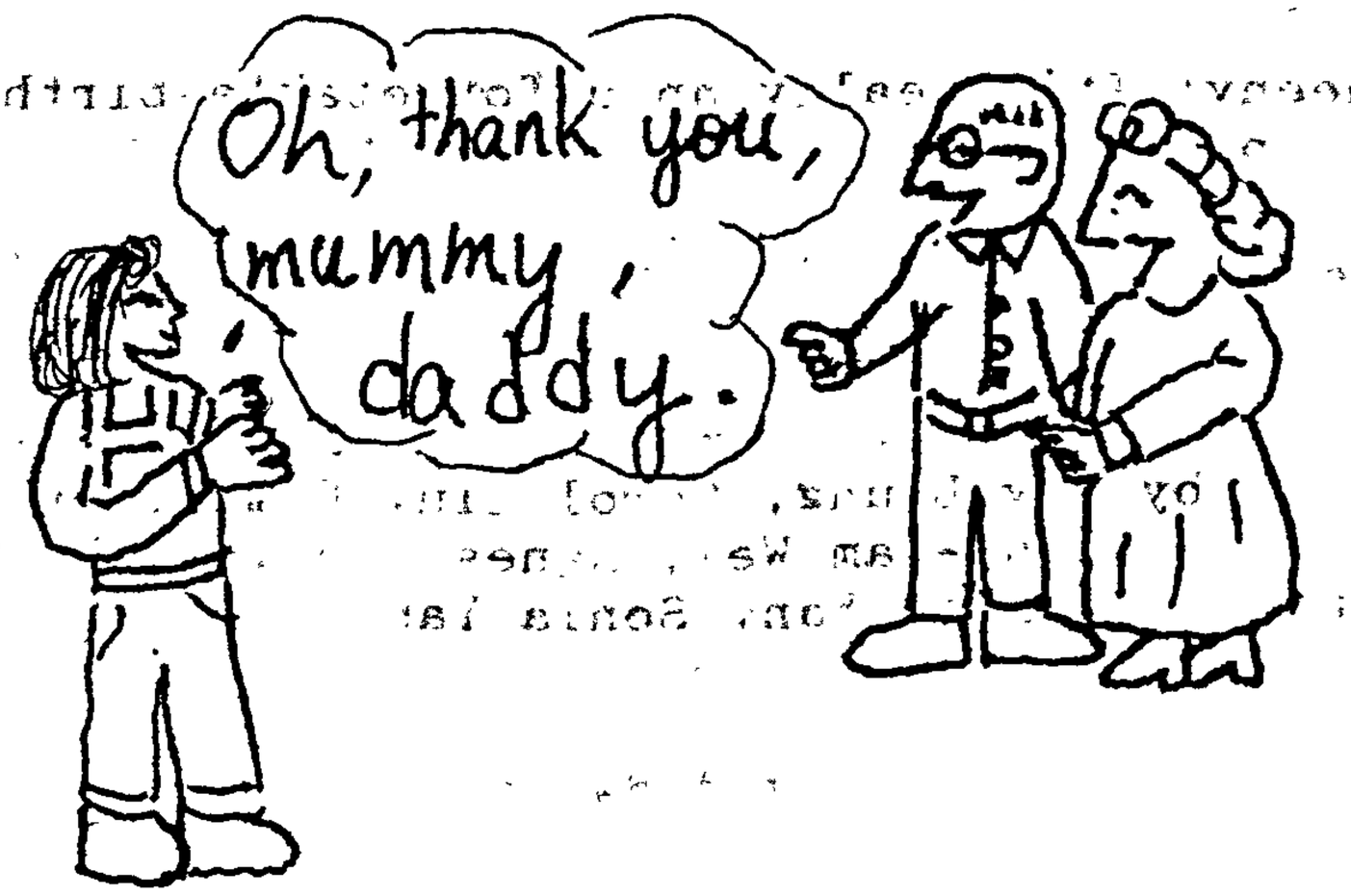
Alex's mother: When will the party start?

Alex : 4:00p.m.

Alex's mother: I'll prepare some food for your party.

Alex's father: And I'll decorate the house and make it more beautiful.

Alex : Oh, thank you, mummy, daddy.



* * *

Place: In school

Alex : Next Sunday is my birthday. Would you like to come?

Natalie, Tracy

Joan, Joni : Yes, thank you.

Natalie : We must think of some gifts for Alex.

Joan : How about ice-skates?

Joni : I don't agree because it's too expensive and he has a new pair.

Joan : How do you know?

Joni : Last month, I went skating with him. He had just changed a new pair.

Joan : How about a ball pen?

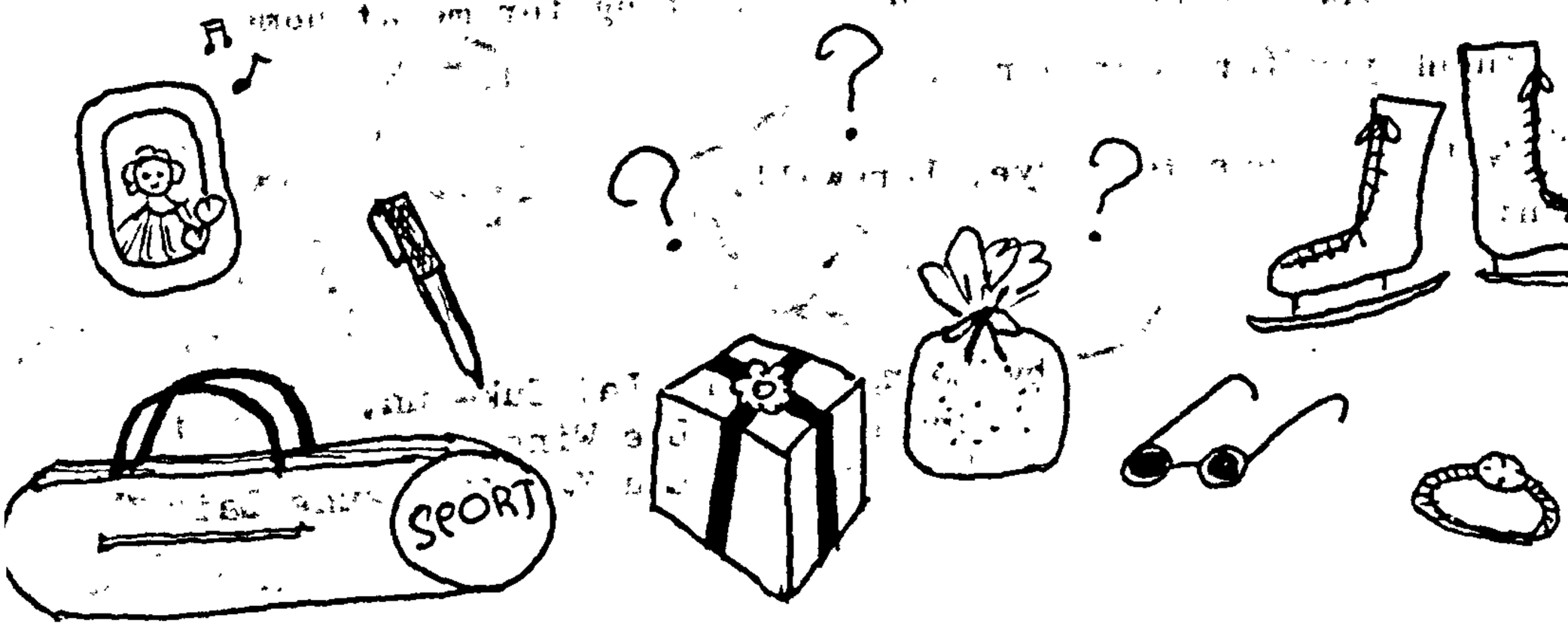
Tracy: No, it's too cheap. How about a musical photo frame?

Joan : Yes, that's good.

Natalie: I want to buy him a glass.

Joni : I'll buy a sport bag. It's useful for him.

Tracy:And I'll buy a watch. Let's go shopping together after school.



* * *

Place :Alex's home. (The door bell rang.)

Alex : Hello, please come in.

Natalie, Tracy : Thank you, Hello uncle, aunty.

Joan, Joni

Alex's father and mother :Welcome.

Alex : Let's go to the garden to play musical chair.

Joan, Joni: Good.

(They played for a while, Natalie missed a few times.)

Alex : Oh, Natalie, you've got a bad luck.

Alex's mother :Everybody, it is time for dinner.

Alex : Let's go in.

(After dinner)

Natalie : Alex, unwrap the gifts.

Alex : Oh, they are very beautiful, thank you very much.

Joni : Let's sing a birthday song for Alex.

(They all sang a birthday song .)

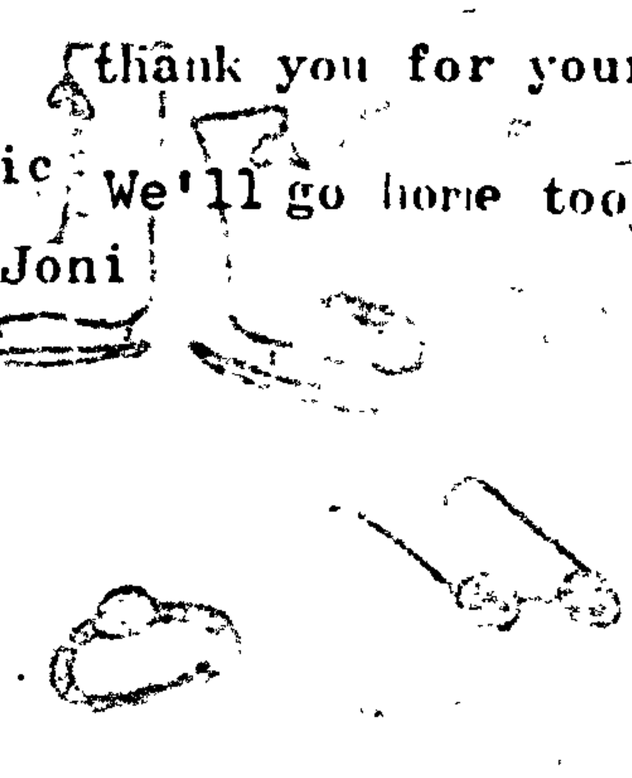
Alex's mother: It's time for the birthday cake.

Natalie, Tracy : It's very delicious.

Tracy : It's nine o'clock, my mother is waiting for me at home, thank you for your party.

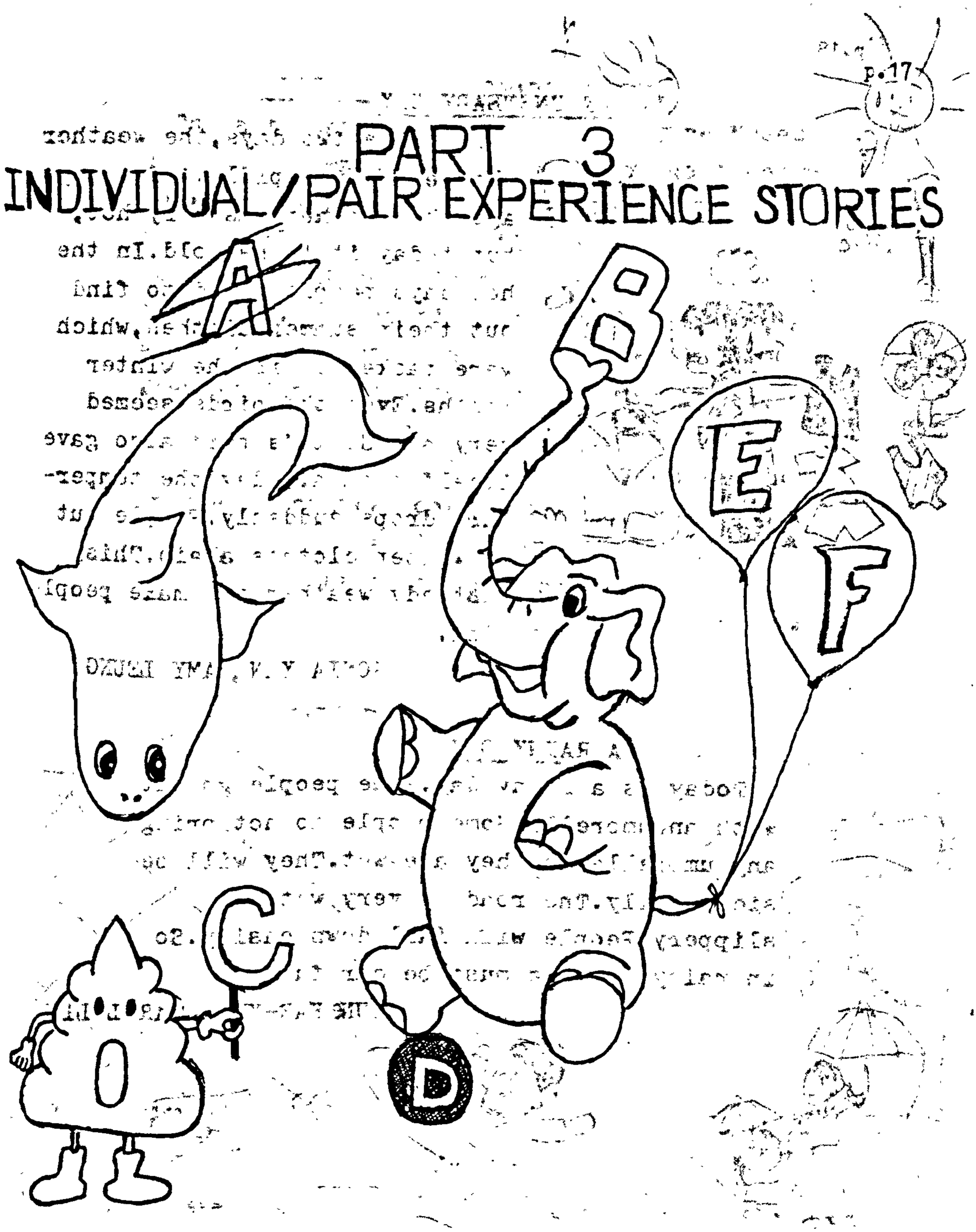
Natalie : We'll go home too. Bye, Farewell.

Joan, Joni



by Leung Ho-Yan, Lai Suk-Fun, Chu Ho-Yan, Lee Wing-Chih, Lau Lai-On, Lau Yam-Yi, Leung Lai

PART 3
INDIVIDUAL/PAIR EXPERIENCE STORIES



AN UNSTEADY DAY

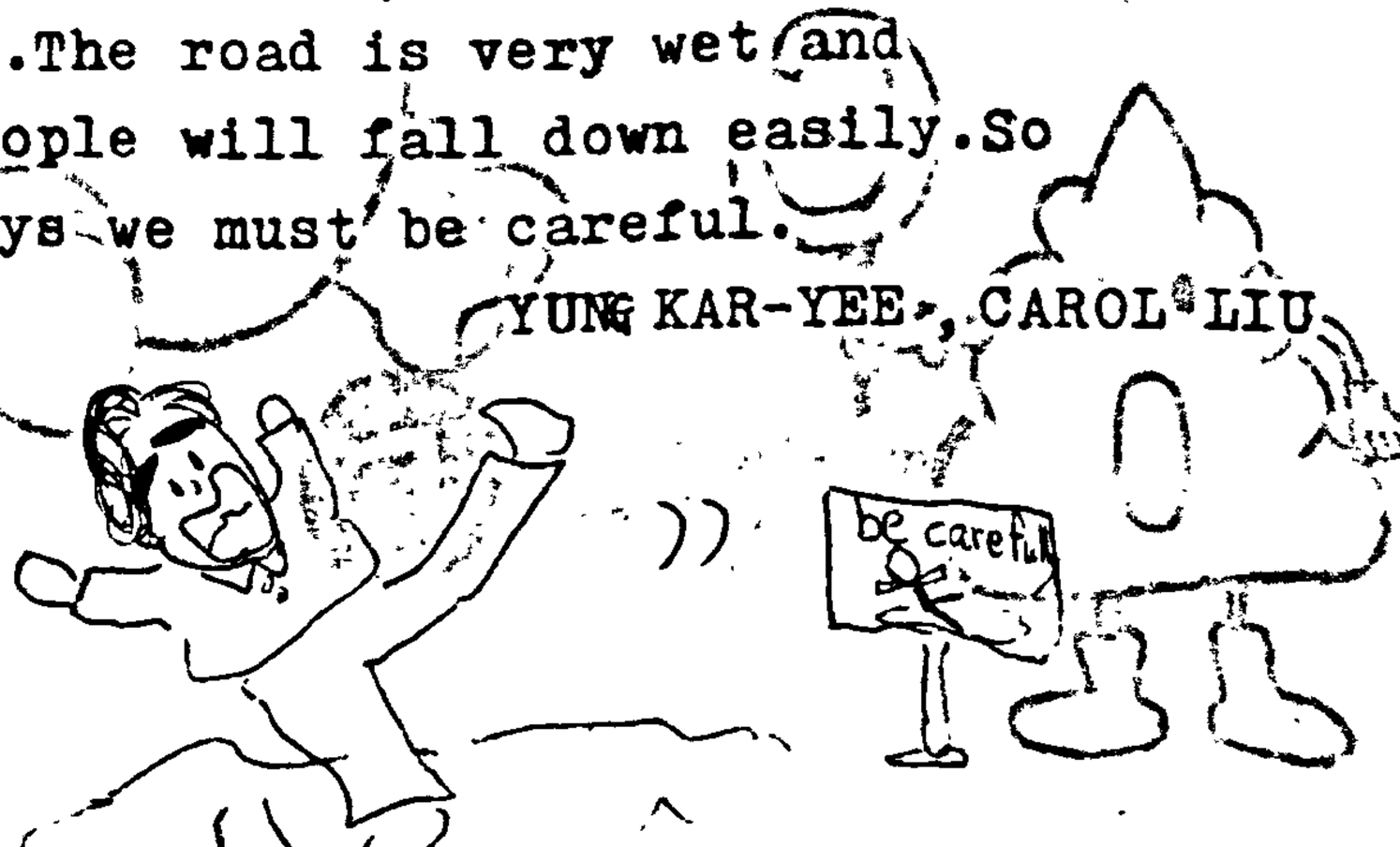
In these two days,the weather changes very rapidly.A few days ago the weather was very hot, but today it turns cold.In the hot days people tried to find out their summer clothes,which were packed up in the winter months.Even the birds seemed very hot.Sonia's bird also gave itself a bath.Today the temperture drops suddenly.People put on winter clothes again.This unsteady weather can make people sick.

SONIA YAN , AMY LEUNG

A RAINY DAY

Today is a rainy day.Some people go out with an umbrella.Some people do not bring any umbrella.So they are wet.They will be sick easily.The road is very wet and slippery.People will fall down easily.So in rainy days we must be careful.

YUNG KAR-YEE , CAROL LIU

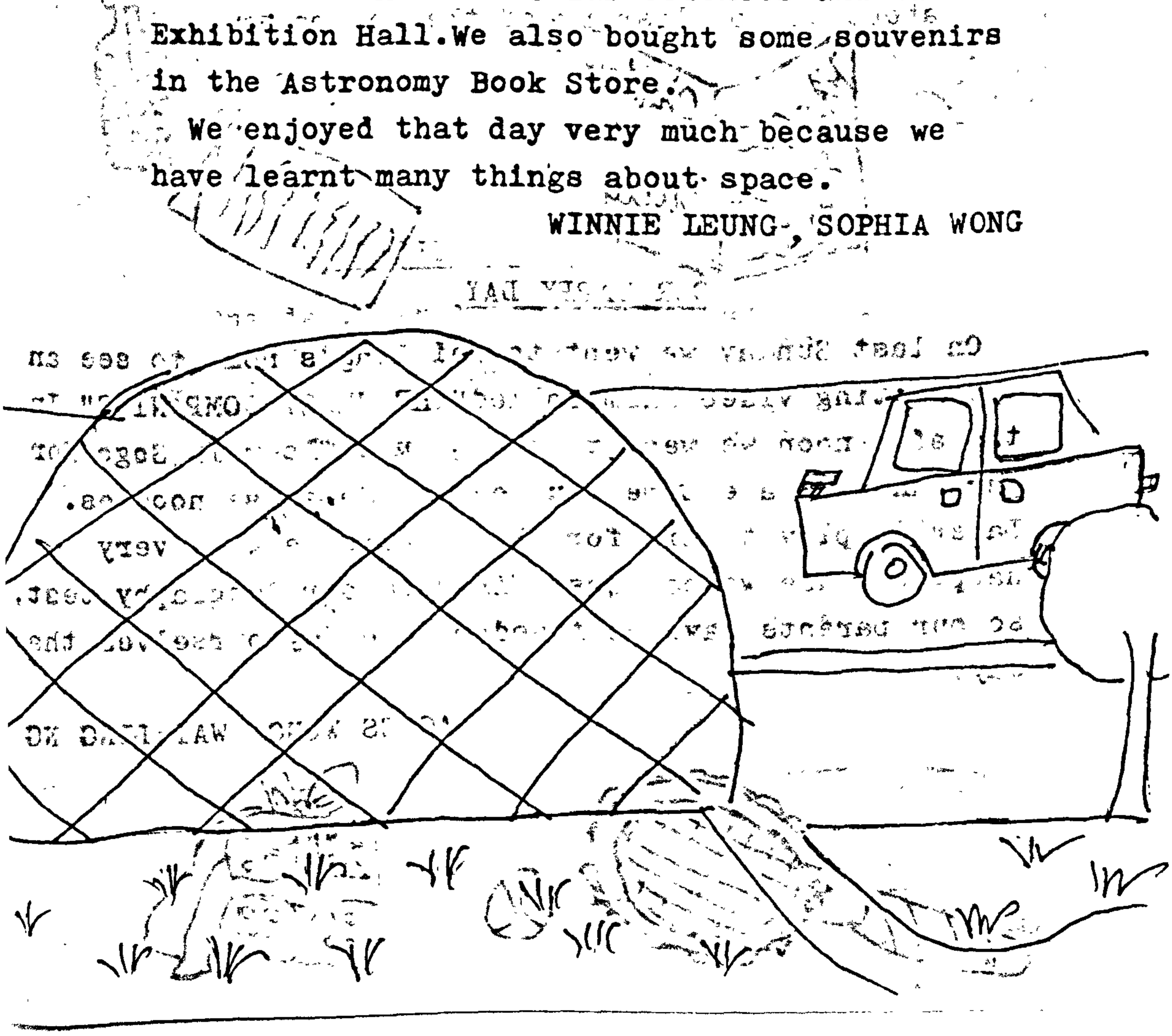


A VISIT TO THE SPACE MUSEUM

On last Sunday,we went to the Space Museum with our friend.We went to the space theatre to watch two films.They were"THE COMIC PERILS" and"BEAVERS".The first film is about how meteors, comets or invaders from outer space can destory the world.The second film is"BEAVERS".It is about how the beavers build a"dam"by trees. When we finished watching these two films,we visited the Hall of Solar sciences and the Exhibition Hall.We also bought some souvenirs in the Astronomy Book Store.

We enjoyed that day very much because we have learnt many things about space.

WINNIE LEUNG, SOPHIA WONG



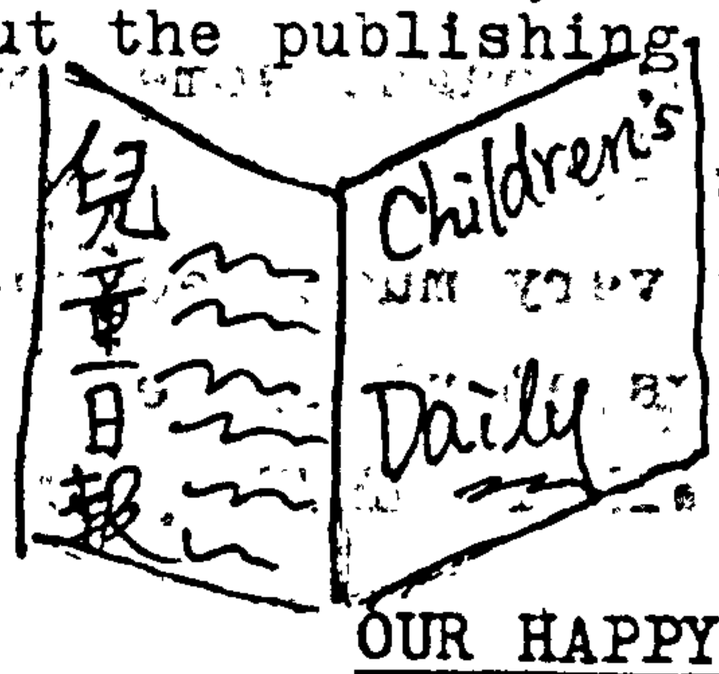
A VISIT TO THE CHILDREN'S DAILY

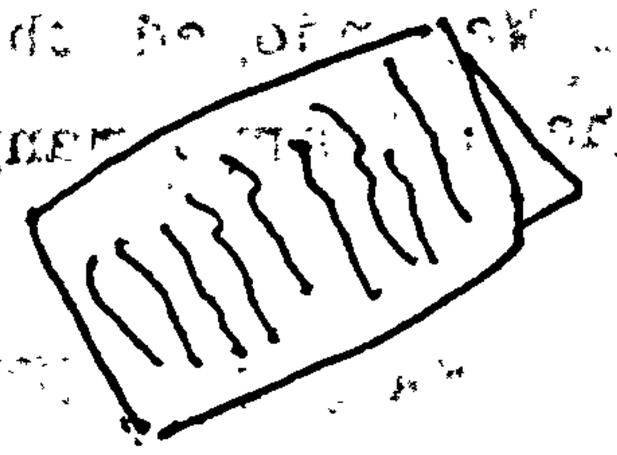
In the Easter Holiday,my friends asked me and my brother to visit the office of the Children's Daily.

That day,we met my friends at the Wan Chai M.T.R.station.When we went there,we found that the office was small.A staff member brought us to a room to see some slides. After seeing the slides,she asked us if we had any questions.We asked her some questions.Then she led us to walk around their office and gave us a newspaper each.

We were disappointed because we had only seen some slides,but we could not know more about the publishing of the newspaper.

SOPHIA WONG

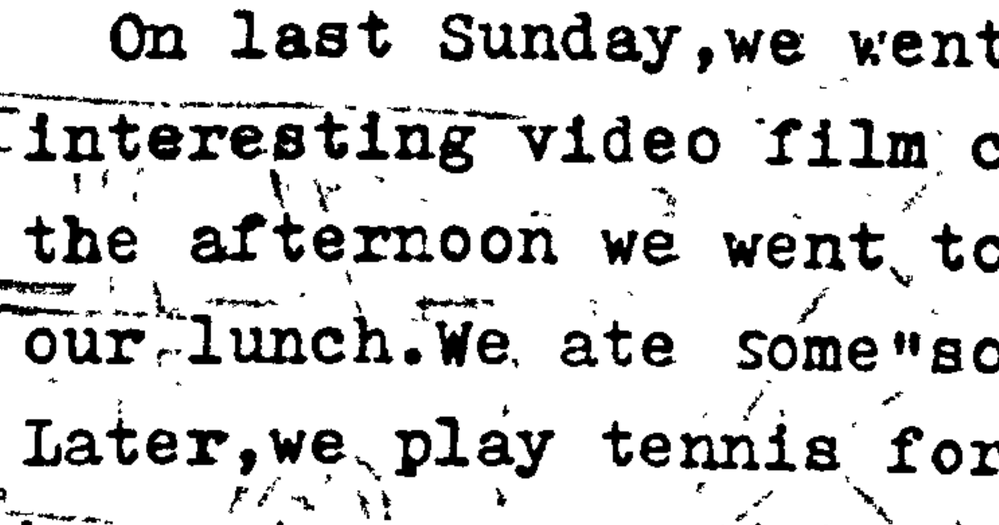


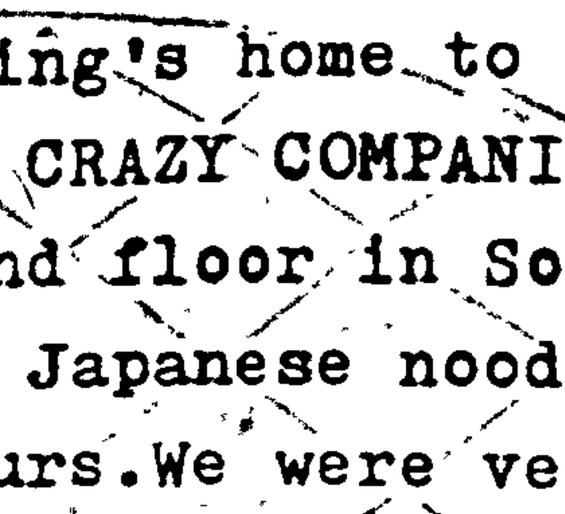


OUR HAPPY DAY

On last Sunday,we went to Wai Ling's home to see an interesting video film called"THE CRAZY COMPANIES".In the afternoon we went to the ground floor in Sogo for our lunch.We ate some"sou-see"and Japanese noodles. Later,we play tennis for three hours.We were very happy because we had just finished our Geography test so our parents gave us freedom to enjoy ourselves that day.

AGNES WONG WAI-LING NG

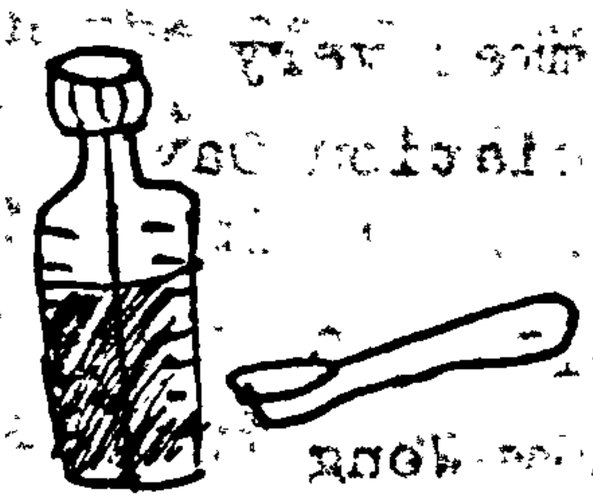




HOW I BECAME UGLY

Last week,I was ill.I had chicken pox.
At first,I had a high temperature.Then
red spots appeared on my skin.I became
very ugly,like people with many pimples.
I felt very itchy.I slept all day.I couldn't
eat a lot of things.Until now,I am still
not allowed to eat many things.I have
lost five pounds.I don't understand how
to do the homework,and I am very worried
about my exam.I don't understand the
lessons taught.

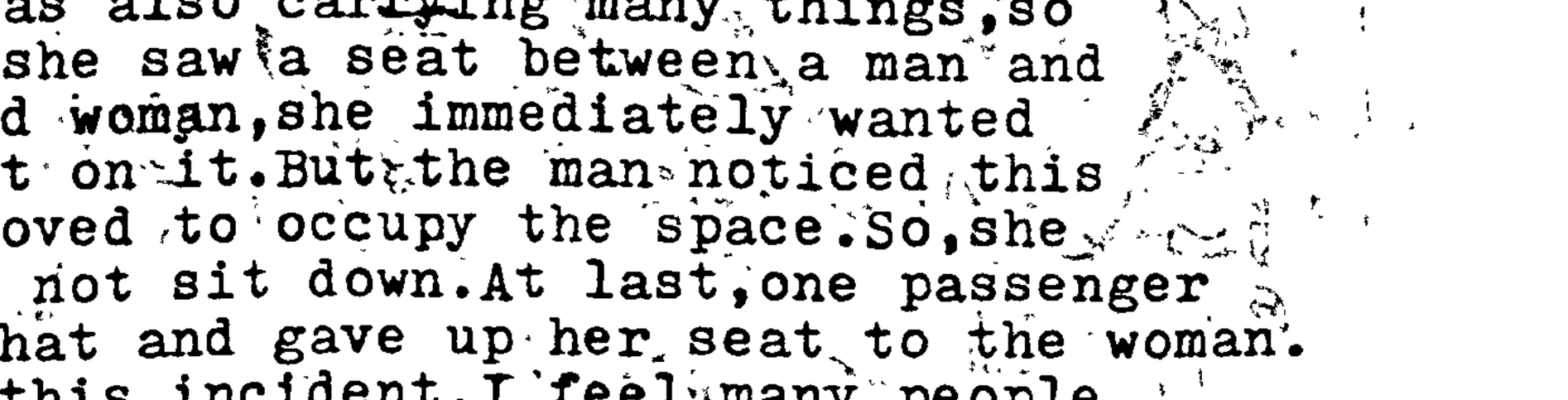
LO PUI-YAN



AN INCIDENT ON THE BUS

One day,when I was on the bus,I saw
a woman holding a baby in her arms.
She was also carrying many things,so
when she saw a seat between a man and
an old woman,she immediately wanted
to sit on it.But the man noticed this
and moved to occupy the space.So,she
could not sit down.At last,one passenger
saw that and gave up her seat to the woman.
In this incident,I feel many people
have sympathy,but some people are selfish.

LIU SUK-WEN



THE FORM ONE ASSOCIATION DAY

15th March ,1990 is the Form One Association Day. After lunch the performers went to put on their costumes. The programmes were solo verse speaking, Chinese folk song singing, ballet danc ing and a play.

When the first programme started, the audience clapped. The ballet dancers' costumes were very beautiful and special. The actors of the play were co-operative.

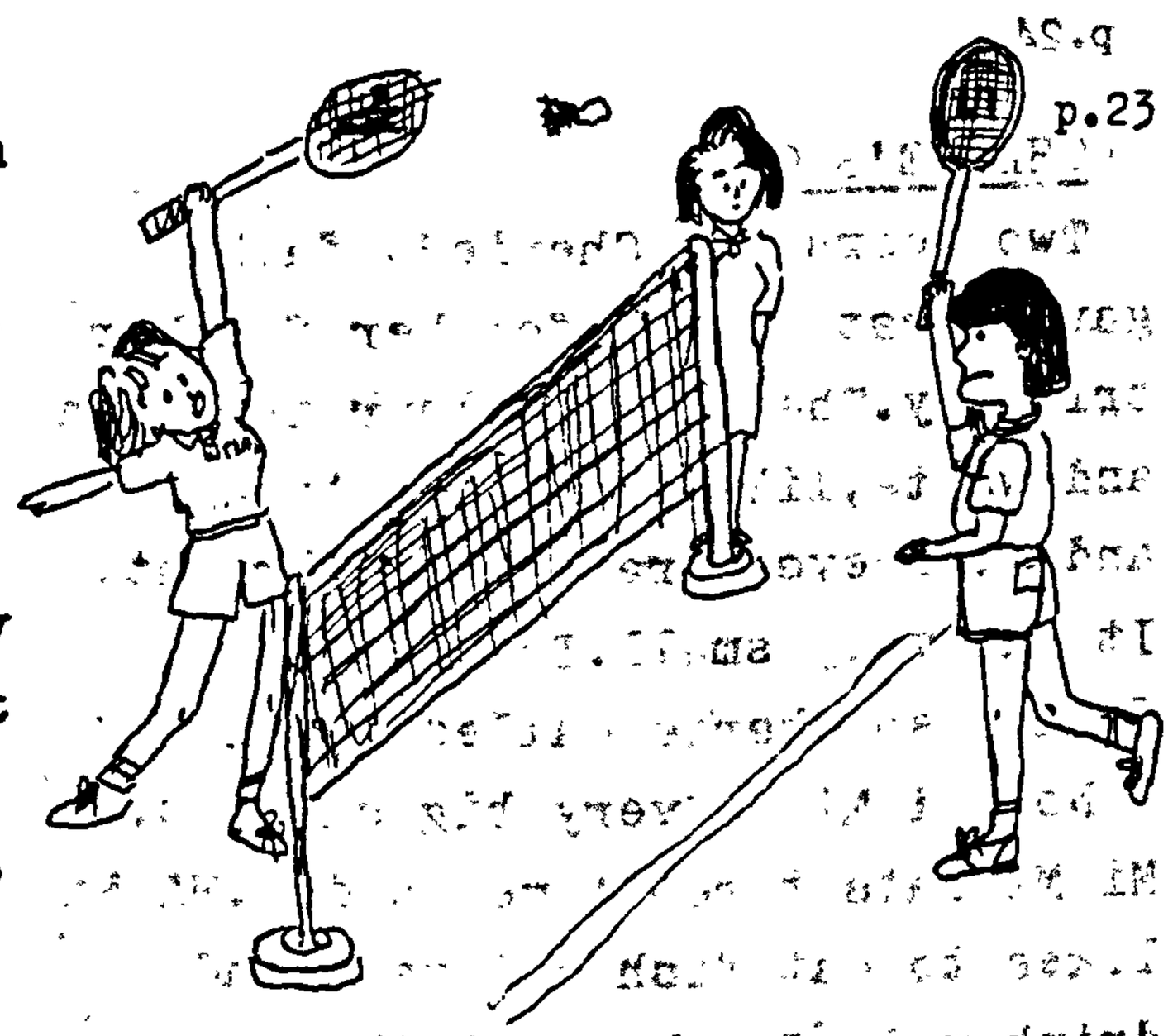
All of us enjoyed all these programmes very much. The performance of Form One Association Day was very successful.

by: Stella Wong,
Wendy Wong

A BADMINTON MATCH

Yesterday a badminton match was held in the gymnasium. In my class, Mandy joined the match. Some classmates and I watched the match after school. At first, Mandy won in the match against Wong Sze-Wai of F.1C. But in the second round, Mandy lost the match to Chan Mui-Mui of F.3. Mandy was disappointed. The match will continue in this week to find out who the champion was.

by :Kimberly Lo,
Ling-Kim Wei

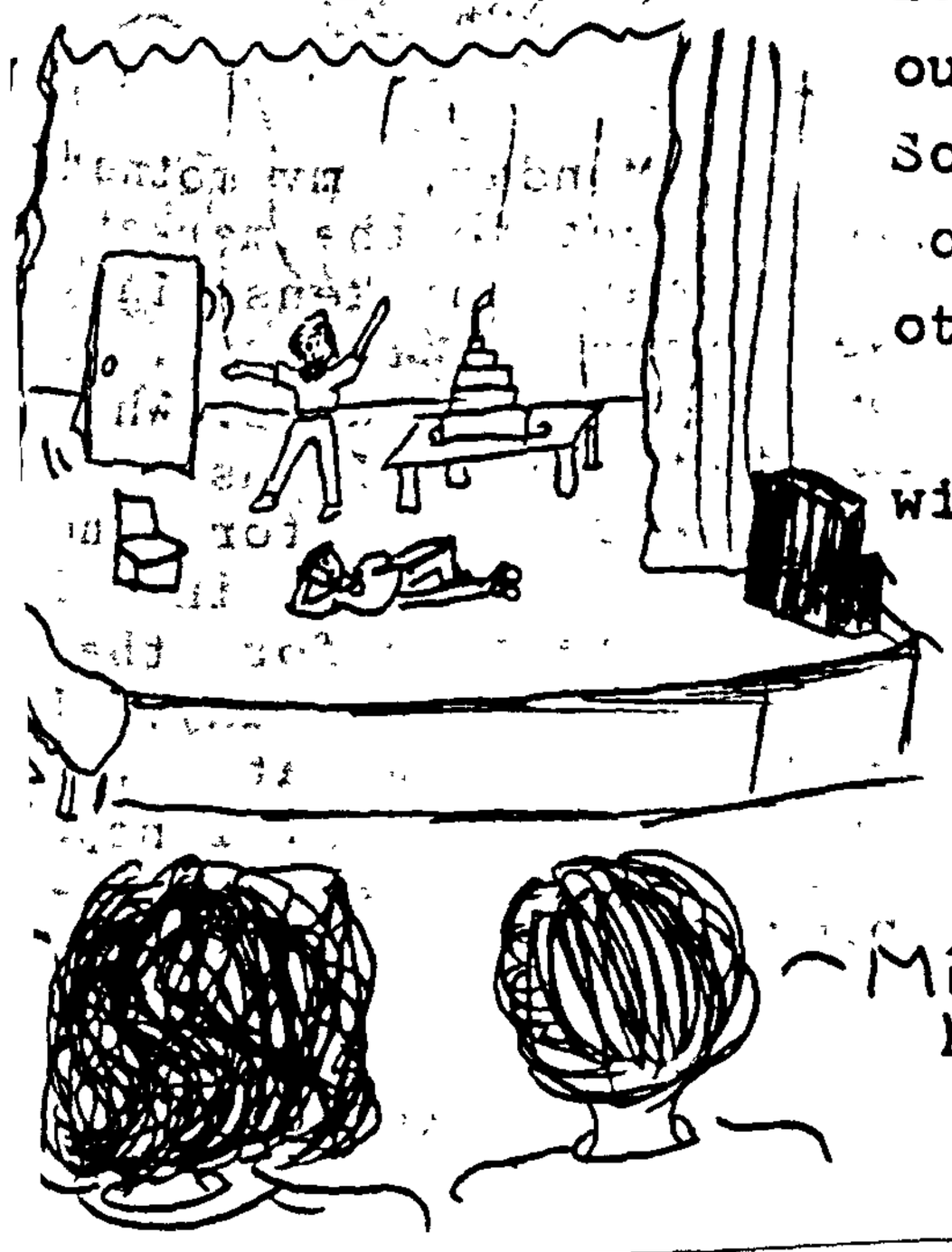


A PLAY COMPETITION

Tomorrow, we will have a play competition in our English lesson. We are busy to rehearse our plays in these few days. Some people are very cooperative. ome of our plays are interesting, others are scary.

At last, we hope our plays will be successful.

by ; Vivian Sin,
Jenny Liu



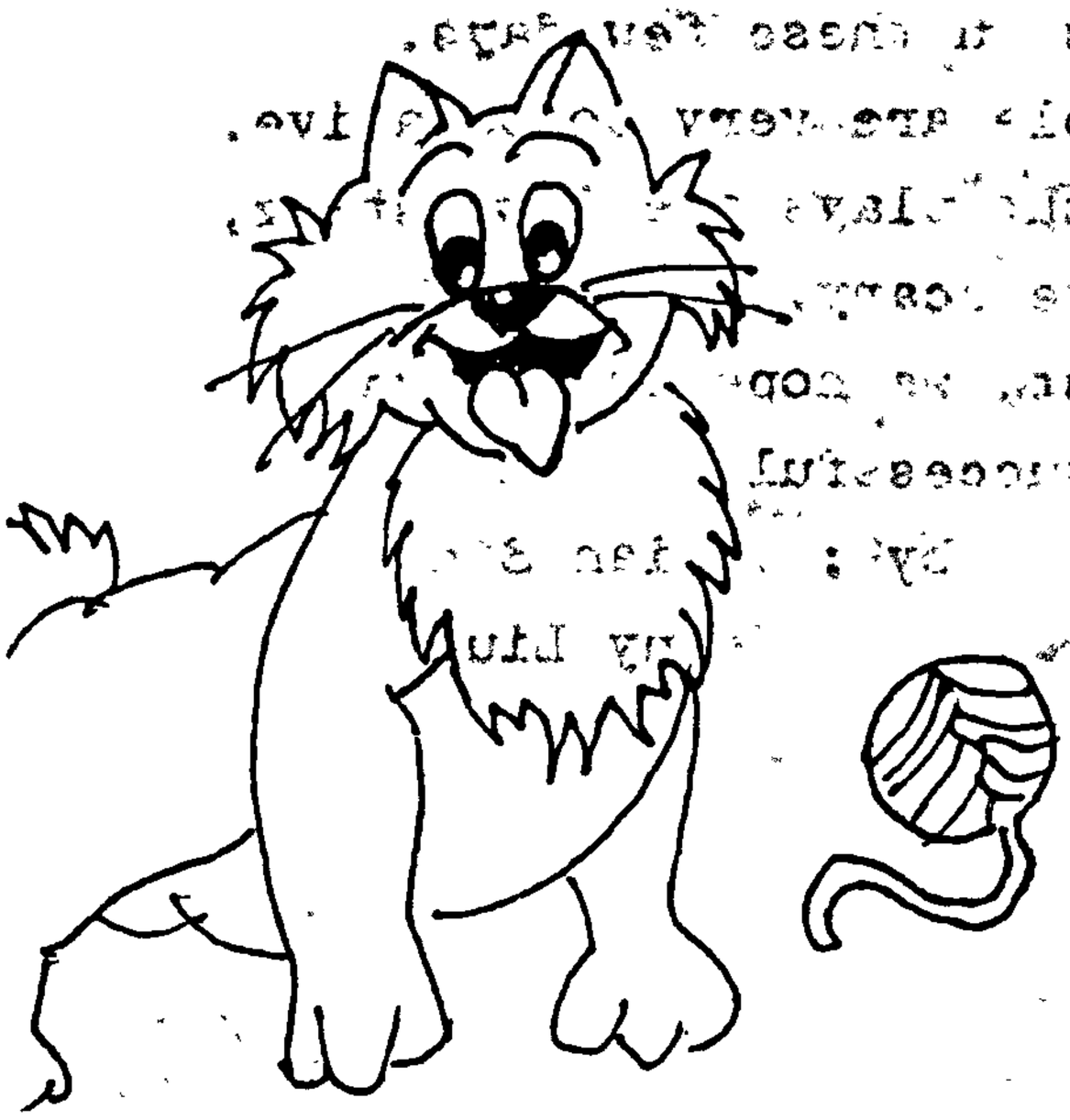
~Miss Lee

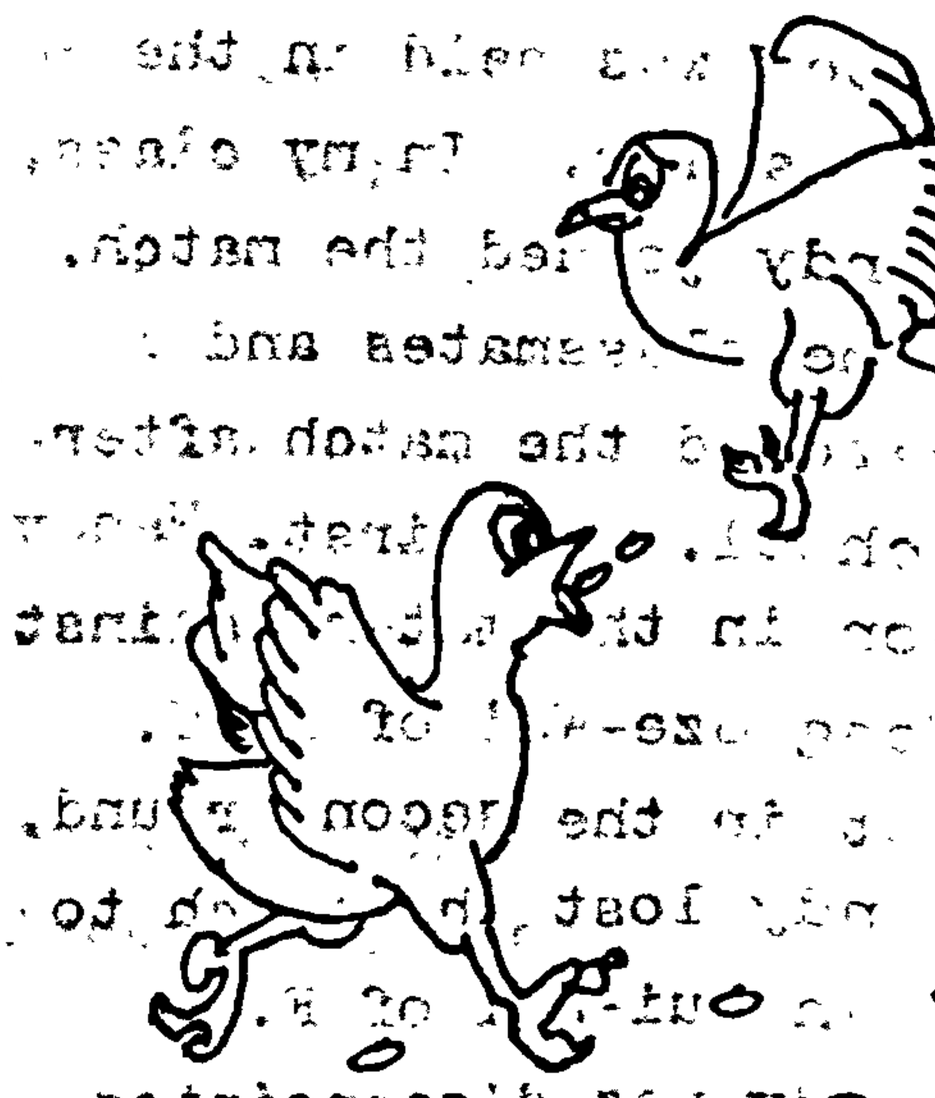
CHERIE'S CAT

Two years ago Cherie's father gave a cat to her for her forher brithday.The cat's colour is brown and white,like that of a tiger; and it's eyes are big and bright. It was very small.The cat is female so Cherie called it"Mi Mi".

Now Mi Mi is very big and fat. Mi Mi eats three times a day.Mi Mi likes to eat fish and meat,and drink milk.In the past,Cherie usually played with Mi Mi,but she does not play with it so often now because she has much homework.

VICKY WOO, CHERIE WONG





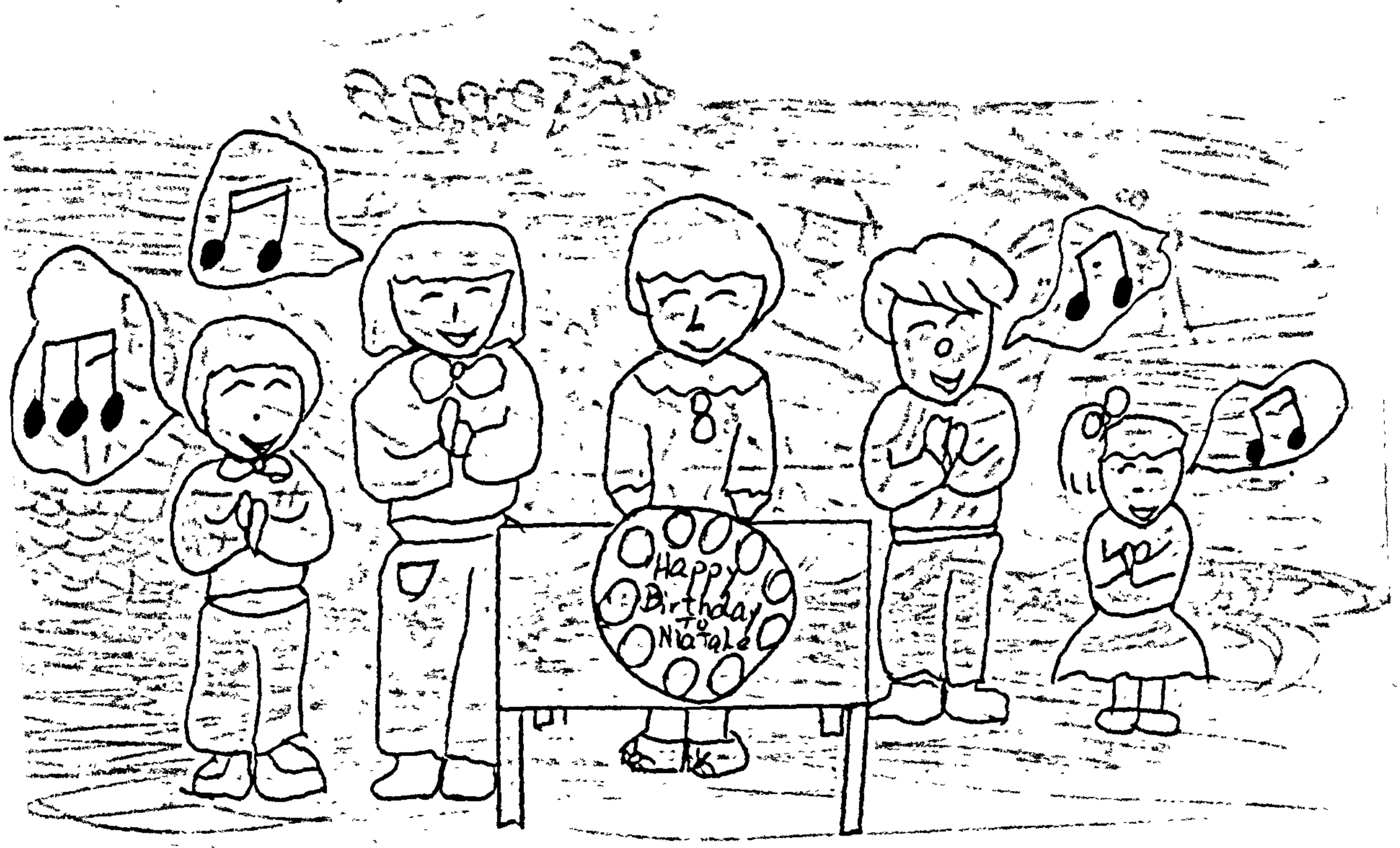
My New Pet

On Monday, my mother and I went to the market. I saw many chickens. They were very lovely. So, we bought two chickens. When I went home, I used a cardboard box for the chickens to stay in. I give some rice for them to eat twice a day. I take a look at the chickens everyday. I hope the chickens will grow bigger soon.

Kar-Yee Yung

A Birthday Party

Last Sunday was my birthday. I had a birthday party. I invited my cousins, aunties and uncles to my party . I prepared some food and some games. My mother bought a nice birthday cake for me . It had some fruit and cream on it. Everything was ready for the party . When my guests arrived, they gave me some gifts and the party started. First, we had tea. Then I cut the cake and all the people sang the birthday song for me . After tea we played some games. Finally, we had a lucky draw. Then the party ended. At night , when I went to bed, I unwrapped all my gifts. There were toys , a fourtain pen, a pencil box and a pretty dress. I thought I was the happiest person in the world.



by :Leung Ho-Yan.

DRAGON BOAT FESTIVAL

This is the first year I went to see a dragon boat race,so I was very happy.That day,my parents and I met our relatives at a restaurant. Then,we went to Yau Ma Tei pier to see the dragon boat race.There were many people.It was difficult to find a seat. The race began and it was exciting.At about four o'clock the race finished.We went home to have our Dragon Boat Festival dinner. We ate some rice dumplings.

by: Yvonne Leung

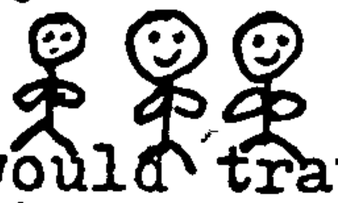
HOME COMING

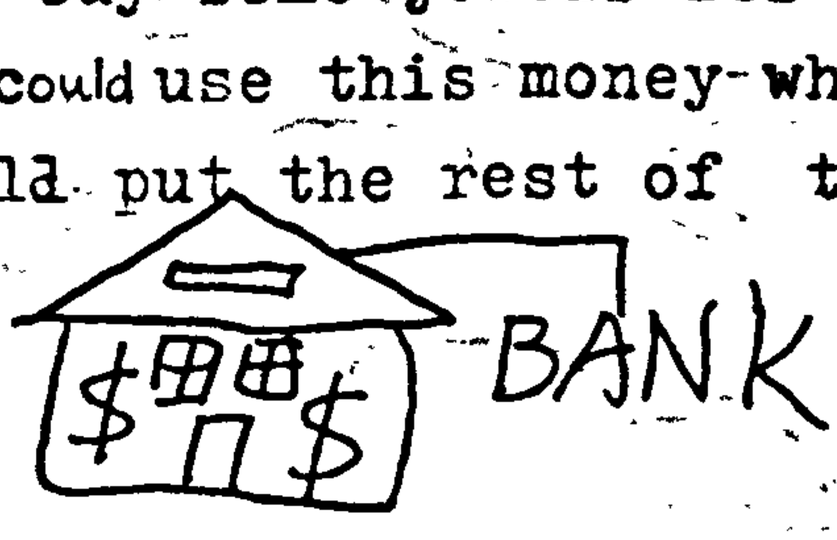
Last Saturday,my father,mother,my sister and I went to welcome my second sister from Canada. She arrived Hong Kong at a quarter to six .We went to the airport and waited for her until half past six.

Then we went home for our dinner. After we had finished the dinner,we talked about my second sister.We all said she was very thin and her hair was fairer than before.Then she gave a gift to each of us.Father had a beautiful pen,mother had a box of chocolate,my elder sister had a pair of shoes,my younger sister had a bag and I had a nice doll.We all liked the gifts.She will stay in Hong Kong until 24th August,1990.

by: Vicky Woo

$ 100 Million

If I had $100 million. I would buy a giant and beautiful villa  to live with my family . I would buy a car  for my father and my brother. I would employ some servants  to serve my family.My family and I would travel Australia.  I would buy beautiful cloths for my family and myself . I would buy some jewels for my mother and sister. They could use this money when they need it.At last I would put the rest of the amount in the bank.



by: Elaine Chan

The School Fun Fair

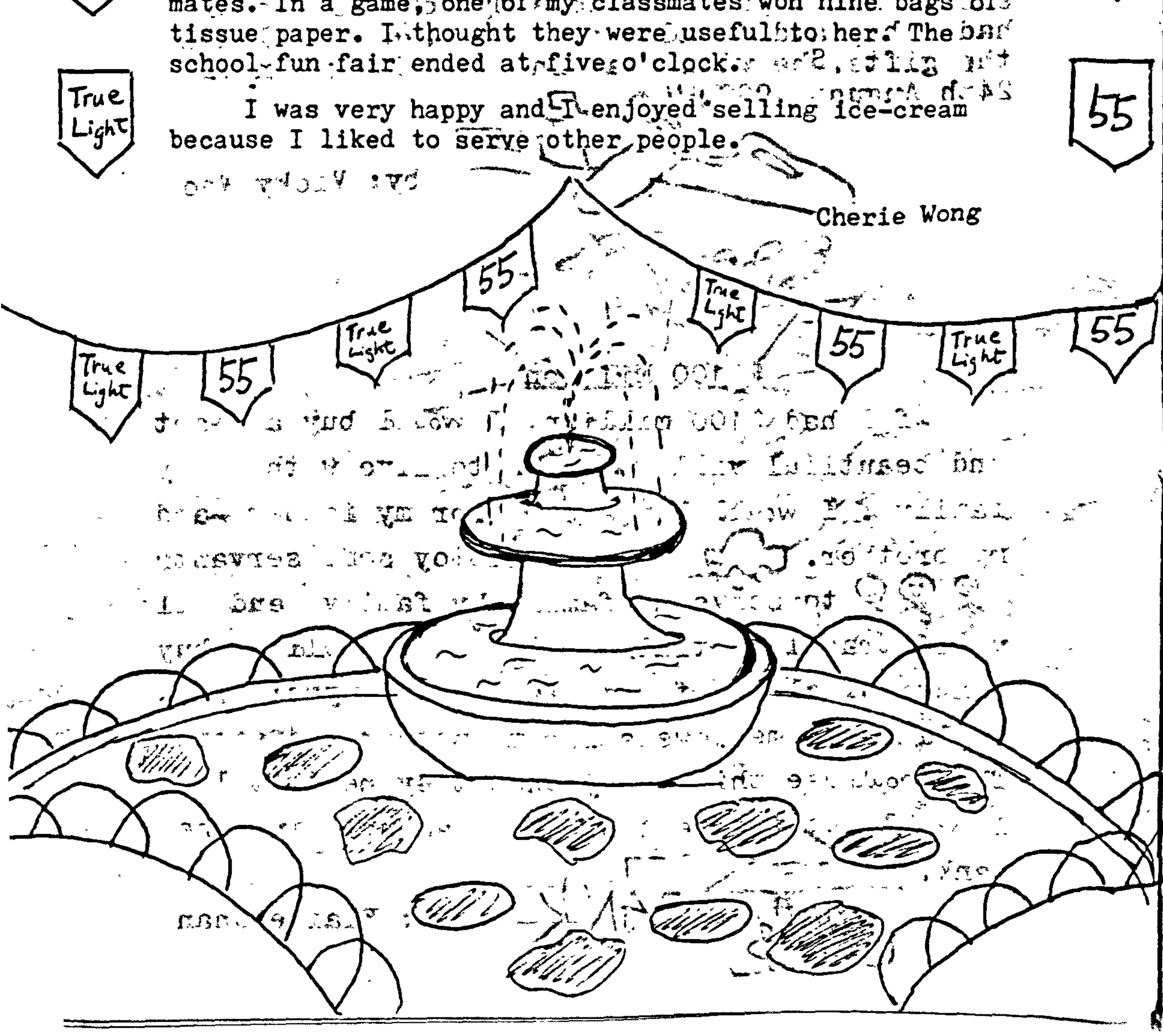
Our school held a fun fair on 5th May to celebrate the 55th School Anniversary. On that day, we first had a Thanksgiving Service. Then we had a small opening ceremony, and the school fun fair started at ten o'clock.

There were many game stalls, food stalls and goods stalls in the fun fair. The students decorated the school and they designed the games. The visitors were happy to play the games.

On that day, my class was in charge of a food stall. We sold ice-cream. I was on duty in the afternoon. When I was not on duty, I went to play games with some classmates. In a game, one of my classmates won nine bags of tissue paper. I thought they were useful to her. The school fun fair ended at five o'clock.

I was very happy and I enjoyed selling ice-cream because I liked to serve other people.

Cherie Wong



EDITORIAL BOARD

Advisors: Miss S.W. Lee
Miss A. Ma

Editors: Sophia Wong
Vicky Woo

Typists: Amy Leung
Carol Liu
Sonia Yan

Artists: Kimberley Lo
Stella Wong
Wendy Wong

4th July 1990

True Light Middle School of Hong Kong

9th May 1990.

The School Fun Fair

1. On the School Fun Fair day, there were many people.

2. Many people played games.

3. Our class sold ice-cream and Mandy said I was not polite to visitors but I thought that she was worse than I.

4. Many people ate some food in the canteen.

5. There were many stalls in the classrooms.

6. Our classmates served/welcomed the visitors to play games.

7. The customers did not buy ice-cream from Kim, and Kim scolded them.

8. There were many goods stalls and many visitors exchanged goods with the tickets.

9. I saw a woman go to / enter the gentlemen's toilet by mistake.

10. That day, the fountain did not work.

11. A woman told me she lost her handbag. I reported to the teacher about this.

12. Mandy's group sold more ice-cream than my group and she laughed at me and made our group unhappy.

13. The presents were not useful.

14. Most games were the same as last year's, so they made us bored.

15. Many bees flew near the soft-drink stall.

Useful Vocabulary:

the 55th School Anniversary			Thanksgiving Service
Opening Ceremony		was held	celebrate
visitors	guests	parents	old girls
decorate	school campus		
posters	flags	banners	flowers
game stalls	food stalls		goods stalls
take turns	on duty	queue	prizes
joyous atmosphere	full of fun		full of varieties

Appendix 20

Examples of Students' Work
(Directed writing marked by the teacher and the finished products)

- My New School
- A Description of My Family Members
- My Saturday
- The Joint Athletics Meeting of True Light Schools
- The Chinese New Year
- An Accident
- A Letter of Advice
- The School Fun Fair

12-9-1989.

My New School

My new school is called True Light Middle School of Hong Kong . It is in Causeway Bay. I fell the school is big . It has a big swimming pool, a big sports ground and big classrooms. The school environment is very quiet. Many flowers and trees are planted in the school gandon. The teachers are very kind and they like to help students and teach them read book.

My c lassmistress is Miss kwan, She likes to smile, because she always smiles. The new school has very good environment and good teachers. I think my life in seconday school will be happly.

Many people are wearing their own clothes but we have to wear cheung-sam. I feel very hot and tight but I feel very beatiful.

Liu Lai-Yung

12th September, 1989

My New School

My new school is called True light Middle School of Hong Kong. ~~New school~~ It is in Causeway Bay. I feel the school is big ~~place~~. It has a big swimming pool, a big sports ground, and the big classrooms. The school environment is very quiet. Many flowers and trees are planted in the school garden. ~~There are~~ The teachers are very kind and they like to help students and teach them read book.

My classmates ~~are kind of~~ She is Miss Kwan, She likes to smile, because she always smiles. The new school has very good environment and good teachers.

see me. I think my life in secondary school will be happy

? (My ~~middle~~ life I want is as good as.)

many people are
W Every day is wearing their own clother but

we have to wear cheung-sam. I feel very hot

and tight but ~~very~~ beautiful.

I feel E+

Sentence making:

1. like

I like my school environment. ✓

2. They

They are going to the swimming-pool. ✓

3. them

The students are playing football with them.

3 smile

My teacher, Miss Kwan, always smiles when she talks ~~with say sentence~~.

1 spelling
teacher

teacher teacher teacher teacher teacher teacher ✓

2 classmistress / formmistress

classmistress / formmistress classmistress / formmistress

classmistress / formmistress classmistress / formmistress ✓

form-mistress

form-mistress form-mistress form-mistress
form-mistress form-mistress form-mistress ✓

A description of my family Members

There are six members in my family. They are my father, my mother, my three sisters and 9. We live in 18C/F, 17BL, Provident centre, Noth Point, Hong Kong. One of my sister studies in Canada.

This is the picture of my family. It was taken in Thailand three years ago. In the family picture, the man in the yellow shirt is my father. My eldest sister is on the left and my second eldest sister is next to her. My elder sister is with a hat my mother is next to her. I'm in front of my mother.

12th October, 1989.

A description of my family Members

There are six member in my family. There are my mother, my mother and my three sister and I. We live in 18C/F, 17BL, Wharf Centre Sister Wharf Road, North Point, Hong Kong, but my another sister who studies in Canada. One of my sisters

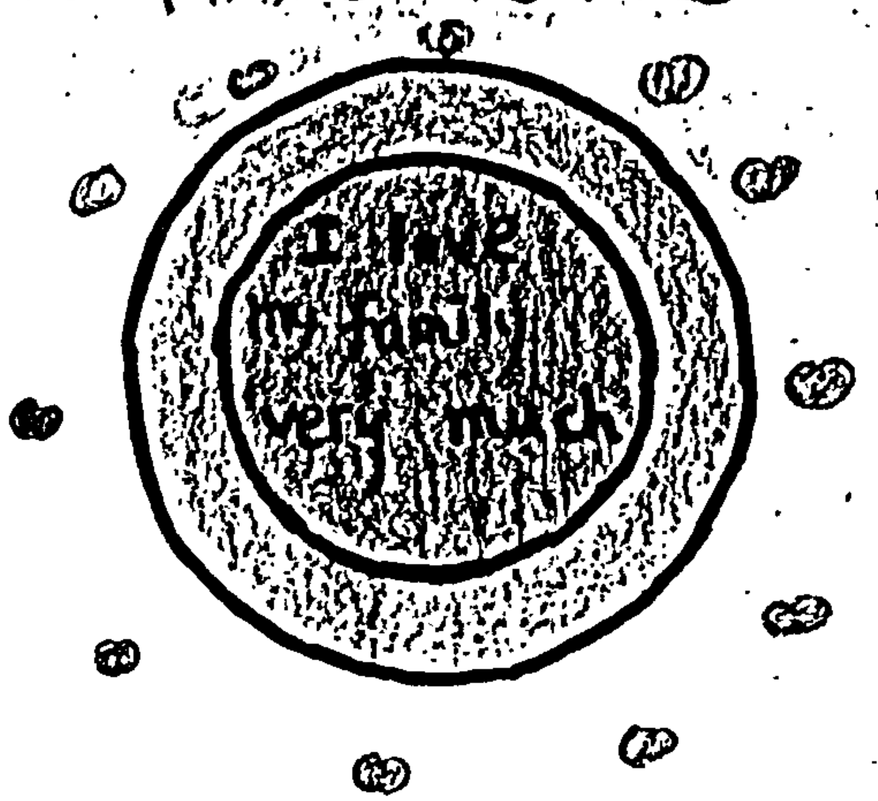
This is the picture of my family. It was taken in Thailand three years ago. In the family picture, the man in the yellow shirt is my father. My eldest sister is on the left and my second eldest sister is next to her. My elder sister who is with a hat and my mother is

My father is a shop owner. My mother is a housewife. My eldest sister works in my father's shop. My second eldest sister is in Canada. My elder sister and I are students. My father is a very nice father. My mother is talktive. My eldest sister is hardworking. My second eldest sister is happy every day. My elder sister is responsible. I'm active.

I like my family very much, because we live together happily.

Woo Yuen-Yee

~THE END~



next to her. I'm in front of my mother.

My father is the shop owner. My mother is a housewife. My eldest sister, works in My father's shop. My second eldest sister is in Canada (I and my eldest sister is a student. My father is a very nice father. My mother is talktive. My eldest sister is hardworking. My second eldest sister is happy in every day. My elder sister is responsible. I'm active.

I like my family very much, because we live together I'm happy. happily.

(1)

Spelling:

1. happy happy happy happy happy happy happy
2. second second second second second second second

Sentence making.

1. and I My sister and I go to swimming

2. happy I'm very happy when I am swimming.

3. happily I'm happily in this night. x
She smiled because she was happily.

4. with (clothing.)

I with my sister go to the beach. x

I'i go to the beach with my sister.

happily she was happily because she has a beautiful dress.

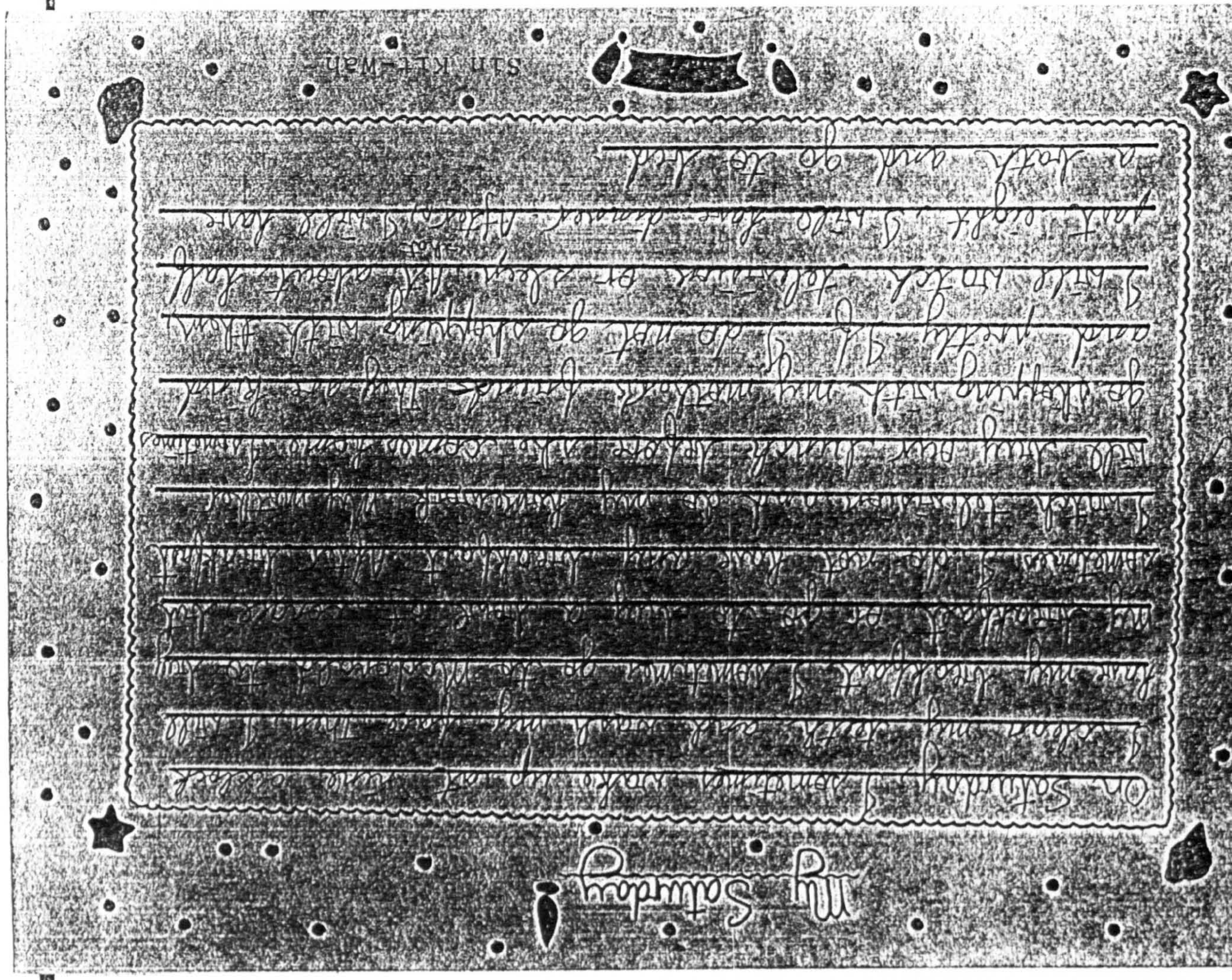
Saturday
My (day)

On Saturday, I sometimes woke
then
up at nine o'clock after I got
clean my teeth and wash my
Then,
face. I will have my breakfast. I
will go to Mcdonald to buy
my breakfast or go to buy a
kind of congee, but sometimes
I do not have any breakfast
watch
at last after breakfast. I watch
television and do my homework.
our
My mother will buy lunch

afr. before she come home. I
come
(seldom) sometimes
sp seldom go to shopping with my
mother's friends. They are kind
not very clean and tidy. (If I do not
(see me) go with them shopping), I will watch my
watch
or sleep at
pp television at afternoon. I will feel
tired, I will have a rest
after dinner, I will do my
and go to bed. D.

Sentence making:

1. watch
I usually watch television at night.
2. watching
I like watching television



29th November

The Joint Athletics Meeting Of True Light Schools

It was a cloudy day. The 4th Joint Athletics Meeting Of True Light Schools was held on 23/11 at the Main Stadium. There were many races, for examples running, high jump, long jump, shot put, 4×100m relay and 100m hurdle.

When the race started, the cheer group cheered loudly. But I like looked the teachers' 4×100 relay race because it was very exciting. And I like look the 100m running, too. It was very boring all the time because my school athletes always lost. When in the lunch time, the lunch boxes arrived late and the food had no tasteless, so I was hungry. I felt the cheer group performace was best. At last, we went home by bus at 5:15p.m.

Sp-num

C

Sentence making:

1. loudly. Don't speak so loudly.
2. hard. This homework is hard to do

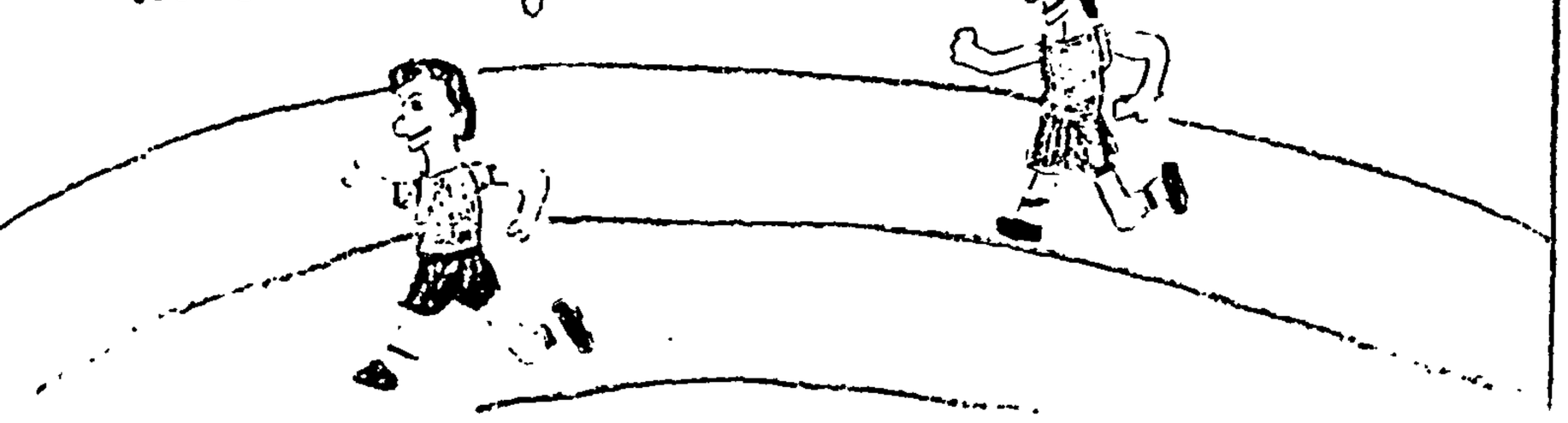
The Joint Athletics Meeting Of True Light Schools

Liu Sik-Wen

It was a cloudy day. The 4th Joint Athletics Meeting Of True Light Schools was held on 23/11 at Wan Chai Stadium. There were many races, for example, running, high jump, long jump, shot put, 4×100m relay and 100m hurdle.

When the race started, the cheer group cheered loudly. But I liked the teacher's 4×100 relay race, because it was very exciting. I also liked the 100m running, too. It was very boring all the time because my school athletes always lost.

At lunch time, the lunch boxes arrived late and the food was tasteless, so I was hungry. I felt the cheer group's performace was the best. At last, we went home by bus at 5:15 p.m.



3. best This is the best way.

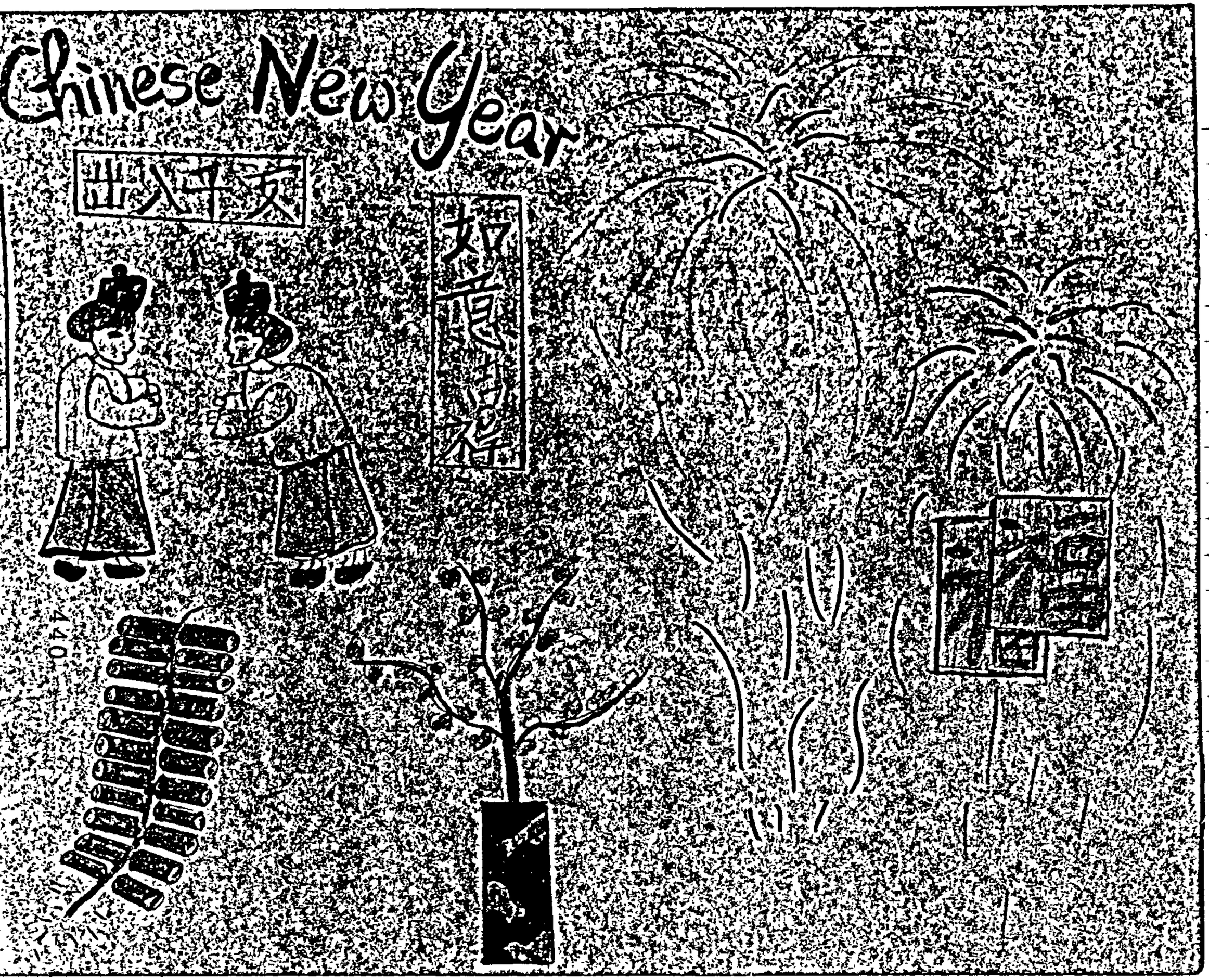
4. at lunch time.
At lunch time, I usually have a box of rice with meat to eat.

Spelling:

1. hurdle hurdle hurdle hurdle hurdle hurdle

2. held held held held held held

Last Sunday, Mary ~~invented~~ invited me to held her birthday party.



4th February, P.2

In Chinese New Year holidays

In Chinese New Year holidays, father, mother, brother and I went to Macau to see my aunt's family.

On the fifth day of Chinese New Year, my family went to Macau by jetfoil. When we reached Macau, my aunt went to the terminal to meet us. At night, we went to a restaurant to have dinner.

On the next day, we went to play firework. My aunt bought a lot of firework for us. When I was playing firework, suddenly exploded and

The Chinese New Year holiday

In the Chinese New Year holiday, father, mother, brother and I went to Macau to see my aunt's family.

On the fifth day of the Chinese New Year, my family went to Macau by jetfoil. When we reached Macau, my aunt went to the terminal to meet us. At night, we went to a restaurant to have dinner.

441

In the next day, we start to play fireworks. My aunt bought a lot of fireworks for us. When I was playing firework, suddenly one exploded and hurt my hand. At that time I saw my hand become black and I felt very hot and painful. Then, my cousin brought me to

hurt my hand. At that time I saw my hand become black and I felt very hot and painful. Then my cousin brought me to a hotel to clean my hand and put some ointment on my hand. Luckily my hand was not badly hurt. It was difficult for me to write because my hand was hurt.

After dinner, my father, mother, aunt and uncle went the dog racing track. My brother my cousins and I rented a video to see in my aunt's house. At one o'clock in the morning we also got on a jetfoil and left Macau.

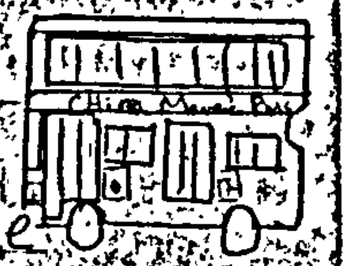
hotel to clean my hand and put some ointment on my hand.
ckily my hand was not badly hurt. It was difficult for me
write because my hand was hurt.
After dinner, my father, mother, aunt and uncle went the dog
ing track. My brother, my cousins and I rented a video to watch on
y aunts house. At one o'clock in the morning we got on a jetfoil
t left Macau.
I was very unlucky because my hand was hurt.
think I shall be careful when I play fireworks next time.

I was very unlucky because my
hand was hurt. I think I shall be careful
I play firework next time.

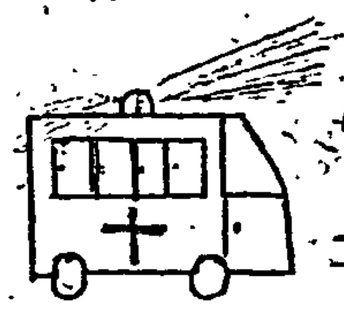
Lo Pui Yan
(Kim)
(26)
FID

An Accident

On Wedesday, 24th March at about five minutes to ten, I stood at the bus step with an old lady. When the bus came, the bus-driver did not let the old lady get on because the bus was full, and he closed the door. The old lady was angry and tried to open the door by her umbrella. But the bus-driver drove away, she ran after the bus and fell down.



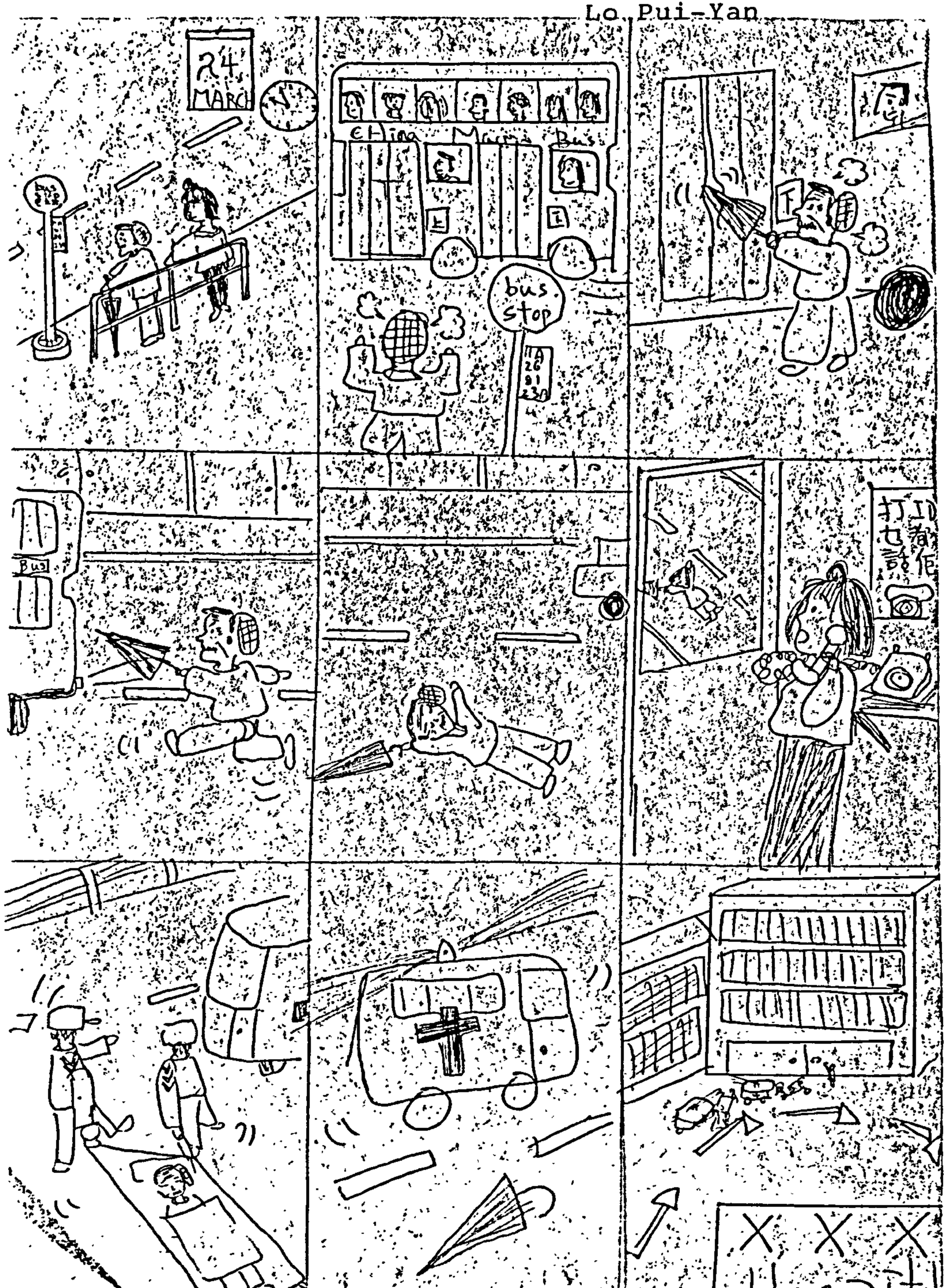
I ran to the telephone kiosk and dialled 999 and reported the accident. later, the ambulance came and carried her to the hospital.



21-2-90

An Accident

On Wednesday, 24th March at about five minutes to ten, I ~~stand~~ stood at the bus stop with an old lady. When the bus came, the bus-driver did not let the old lady get on because the bus was full, and he closed the door. The old lady was angry, and tried to open the door by her umbrella, But the bus drove away, she ran after the bus and



about five minutes to ten, I was ~~standing at the bus stop.~~
On ~~the~~ Wednesday, 24th March at
I saw the old lady waiting
the bus, when the bus came,
the busdriver did not let the
old lady go on, and close the
door. ~~The~~ The old lady was angly,
and ~~tried~~ tried to open
the door by an
umbrella, but the bus drove
away, and the old lady fell
down.

Leung Wai-Yan

A LETTER OF ADVICE !!

Dear Felix

You must tell your parent about's problems because they can help you to stop from taking drugs. You needn't be afraid of your parents' punishment. If you don't tell your parents, your parents will not know what's wrong with you. They cannot help you. You will not have determination to stop from taking drugs and go to the treatment Centre for drug addicts. If you still take drugs you will lose you friends and waste money. You will feel lonely.

Yours sincerely,
Lorne.

30th April 90

A Letter of Advice

Dear FELIX,

You must tell your parents about ... because they can help you to stop from taking drugs. You needn't be afraid of your parents' punishment. If you don't tell your parents, your parents don't know what is wrong with you. They cannot help you, you will not have determination to stop from taking drugs and go to the treatment Centre for drug addicts.

If you still take drugs, you will lose your friends and waste money. You will feel lonely.

Yours sincerely,

Yvonne

Sentence Making

1. tell (someone) about
We must tell (our parents) about any thing.

2. needn't
In Summer, We needn't wear thick coats.

3. needn't be afraid of
You needn't be afraid of your tests.

4 determine (v.)
I have determined to win in the race

determination (n)

If you do not have determination, you won't do all the things successful

If you do not have determination. you won't be successful

Yung Kar-Yee

The School Fun Fair

The fifth of May in 1990 is the 55th Anniversary of our school. That morning, the Thanksgiving Service was held in the hall. After that the school fun fair started. Our school campus was decorated very beautifully. Our school girls designed many different kinds of stalls, and served the visitors to play games. Many people ate some food in the canteen and exchanged goods with the tickets in the goods stalls. The people played very happily. The fun fair had a joyous atmosphere. Time flies! The fun fair finished at four o'clock.

The School Fun Fair

Date

On the fifth of May in 1990 is the 55th School Anniversary of our school. That day morning, the Thanksgiving Service was held in the hall. After that the school fun fair started. Our school campus was decorated very well. Our classmates designed many different kinds of stalls, And served the visitors to play games. Many people ate some food in the canteen and exchanged goods with the tickets in the goods stalls. The people played very happy. The fun fair had a joyous atmosphere. Time flies! The fun fair

was finished at four o'clock.

Df

Sentence writing :

1. decorate : The school campus
Our shool girls decorated very beautifully

2. was decorated
The school campus was decorated very beautifully

3 happy
I am very happy

4 happily
They are playing very happily

5 finish
I will finish my homework

An Interview with an Upper Form Student

Useful Expressions and Questions:

1. Greeting:
   - Hello.
   - Good morning. / Good afternoon.

2. Introducing oneself:
   - We are _____
   - We are doing a survey about people's favourite things.

3. Asking for permission:
   - Could you spare a few minutes to answer a few questions?
   - May we interview you?
   - Would you mind if we ask you some questions.

4. Asking for information:

   a) Name
      - Can I have your name,please?
      - Are you willing to give me your name?
      - Well, first of all, could you tell me your name, please?

   b) Schooling
      - How long have you been in this school?
      - Which subject do you like most? / What is your favourite subject? (Why?)
      - Do you like this school? (Why?)

   c) Favourite Food
      - What is your favourite thing to eat? / What is your favourite food?

   d) Favourite Hobby
      - What do you do in your spare time?
      - What do you enjoy doing most in your free time?
      - What is your favourite hobby?
      - Do you have a hobby?

   e) Favourite colour
      - What is your favourite colour? (Why?)

   f) Favourite Clothing
      - What kind of clothes do you like to wear?

   g) Favourite Job/ Occupation
      - What do you want to be when you grow up? Why?
      - What do you like to do in future? Why?

5. Ending:
   - Thank you very much.
   - Nice to meet you. / Glad to talk to you.
   - Good-bye.
   - Have a nice day.

6. Asking for Apologies:
   - I beg your pardon?
   - Could you speak slower, please?
   - I'm sorry, I don't understand. Could you explain it for me?
   - Could you spell it for me, please?

II. An Interview

A) Ask two of your classmates about the following topics: their schooling, favourite subjects, hobbies, favourite colour, favourite food, favourite clothes and what they want to be when they grow up.

B) In a group of four, interview three Form 6 students and ask them about the above topic again.

Put the information that you have colloected in the following table:

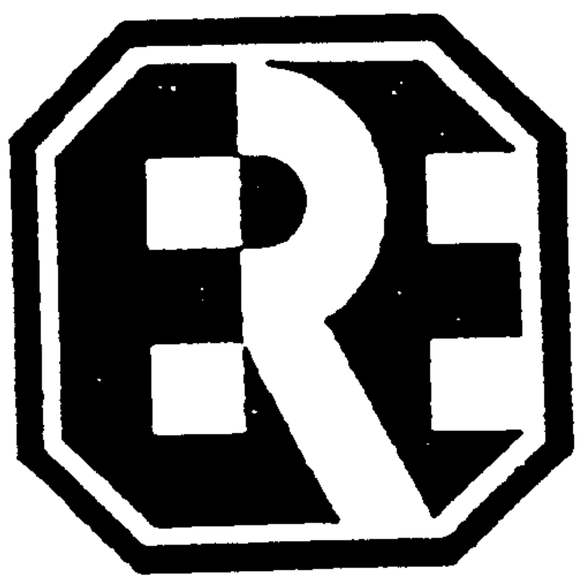
Name	Class	Years of study in this school	Opinion about the school	Favourite subject (Reason)	Favourite food	Hobbies	Favourite Colour (Reason)	Favourite Clothing	Future job (Reason)

HONG KONG ATTAINMENT TESTS

Junior Secondary Series I

English

Teacher's Handbook



Educational Research Establishment
Education Department, Hong Kong

CONTENTS

I. Introduction

The Hong Kong Attainment Tests (Junior Secondary) Series 1 consist of the following tests for each of the three basic subjects of Chinese, English and Mathematics:—

Secondary 1A Test—to be taken by all Secondary 1 entrants between August and September every year;

Secondary 1B Test
Secondary 2 Test
Secondary 3 Test
} to be taken by all Secondary 1, Secondary 2 and Secondary 3 pupils respectively as terminal assessment between May and June every year.

2. This battery of tests is designed as standardized tests for junior secondary levels for the following purposes:—

a. To assist schools to stream or group the Secondary 1 entrants according to their performance in the Secondary 1A Chinese, English and Mathematics Tests;

b. To assess pupils' achievement in the three basic subjects of Chinese, English and Mathematics at each level;

c. To diagnose pupils' areas of strengths and weaknesses in the three basic subjects for guidance and counselling;

d. To identify the less able pupils for remedial treatment; and

e. To monitor the standards of the three basic subjects across years and levels.

3. Testing times for the English Tests are as follows:—

(A) JS 1A
Sections A–F: 30 minutes
Section G (Listening Test): 12 minutes

(B) JS 1B
Sections A–F: 30 minutes
Section G (Listening Test): 12 minutes

(C) JS 2
Sections A–F: 35 minutes
Section G (Listening Test): 15 minutes

(D) JS 3
Sections A–F: 40 minutes
Section G (Listening Test): 15 minutes

II. Testing Areas

Questions are set on the following language aspects:—

1. Usage—basic forms and structures of the language including the verbs, vocabulary, prepositions, sentence structures and correct responses.

2. Reading Comprehension/Problems Solving—pupils' ability to give correct responses or carry out tasks according to information given.

3. Guided Writing—pupils' ability to write in simple, correct English according to cues given.

4. Listening Comprehension—pupils' ability to respond to oral English by selecting the right answer from options given or completing some tasks as required.

The distribution of test items on these different language aspects, the scores of each section and the total score of each test is shown in Appendix I.

III. Procedures for Test Administration

(A) *Preparation for the Test Administration*

1. A few days before the test, teachers should ensure that there are enough test booklets and answer sheets for the pupils (sample answer sheets are at Appendix II). Test-booklets are reusable. Hence, with test booklets that have been used before, teachers should check that all marks have been erased. Replacements should also be made to damaged ones.

2. Pupils should be reminded to bring along their identity cards to the test so that they are able to write, as required, their identity card numbers accurately on the answer sheets.

3. Pupils usually give better performance when they feel clear-minded and at ease. Teachers are therefore encouraged to conduct the test as a normal classroom activity so as to minimize the pressure tests tend to bring on pupils.

4. Prior to the start of the test, the cassette recorder and the cassette tape needed for the listening test should be checked to see that they are in proper working order.

(B) *During the Test*

1. Before the test starts, make sure that the pupils have cleared all their desks except for the necessary stationery. Make the following announcement.

   "Do not talk to each other or look at your neighbours' answer sheets during the test. Do not write or make any marks on the test booklets. Write your answers on the answer sheets."

2. Give the pupils a clear idea about the various sections that make up the test. Announce,

   "This test consists of seven sections, that is, Sections A to G; Section G, the last section, is a listening test."

   Go on to say,

   "I am now going to distribute the answer sheets for Sections A to F."

3. Distribute an answer sheet to each pupil in the class. When every pupil has an answer sheet, make the following announcement,

   "Write the name of your school, your name, class, class number, date of birth, sex and your identity card number on the answer sheet. Write down the date of your test, that is, _____ also."

4. Pause to see that the pupils carry out these instructions. Then announce,

   "I am now going to give out the test booklets. Do not open them until you are told to do so."

   Distribute the test booklets.

5. When every pupil has got a test booklet, give the following instructions,

   "Open your test booklet, read the instructions. Go through your test booklet to check if any pages are missing. Put up your hand if there is any problem."

6. If there are no queries from the pupils, start the test by saying,

   "You may now begin."

7. Write the actual starting time and the expected finishing time on the board for the pupils' information.

8. Supervise the pupils while they are working. Make sure that there is no talking or copying of answers among them. Give them all possible help regarding the test procedure but not with the meanings of certain words used in the tests or answers to questions. When the pupils have finished their test before the time expires, tell them to make use of the time left to go over the answers again.

9. Five minutes before the test ends, announce,

   "You have five more minutes."

10. When the time is up, tell your pupils to stop writing.

11. First collect the answer sheets, then the test booklets.

12. Check that all answer sheets and test booklets have been collected before distributing the answer sheets for the listening test, i.e. Section G, to the pupils.

13. Repeat Procedure No. 1, 3 to 6.

14. Now start the test by saying,

    "Listen to the tape carefully. The test will now begin."

15. Repeat procedure No. 7 to 11.

16. Check that all answer sheets and test booklets have been collected before dismissing the class.

IV. Marking the Tests

(A) *General*

1. It is essential that markers should adhere strictly to the marking schemes (Appendix III to Appendix VI) to ensure a uniform standard of marking.

2. Marks awarded should be written in the boxes against the answers. No half marks should be given.

3. When markers come across answers other than those provided in the answer keys, they should exercise their discretion.

(B) *Guided Writing*

1. For the sake of consistency in marking, the section on guided writing should preferably be marked by one teacher for classes in the same level.

2. For JS 2 and 3, when marking the Section on guided writing, teachers are requested to refer to the sample essays (Appendix VII to Appendix VIII) in order that uniform marking throughout schools in Hong Kong can be achieved.

(C) *Total Scores*

The marks on each section should be recorded in the appropriate boxes. These sub-totals should be added up to form a pupil's total score for the whole test.

V Interpretation of Test Results

After marking the tests, teachers can compare their pupils' scores with those of the standardization sample of the same level by referring to the Statistical Information in Appendix 9 and the Norm Tables (Tables 1 to 8).

1. Comparison by Mean Score

For instance, a pupil's raw score can be compared against the mean scores listed by level below:—

Test	JS 1A	JS 1B	JS 2	JS 3
Mean	30.89	27.86	36.02	40.86

2. Comparison By Percentile

From Norm Tables 1, 4, 7 or 10, teachers can find out the relative standing of each pupil among the pupils in the standardization sample of the same level. For example, according to Table 1, the percentile of a S. 1 pupil who got a raw score of 56 in JS 1A test is 92. This means that 92% of the pupils in the standardization sample achieved that particular level of score or a level lower than that. In other words, about 8% of the pupils scored higher marks than this S. 1 pupil in the same test.

3. Comparison By Standardized Score

A comparison of the performance of a pupil in different tests can be made on the basis of the standardized score. The mean of the standardized score found in the norm tables is 100. Should a pupil get a standardized score of above 100, he has an above average standard. If he should have a standardized score of below 100, his standard is below the average. For example, if a S. 1 pupil had standardized scores of 98.3, 100 and 110.3 in the mathematics test, the English test and the Chinese test respectively, then his level of achievement in mathematics would be slightly below average, that in English would be average, and that in Chinese would be above average.

4. Reading Test Results for Diagnostic Purposes

To diagnose pupils' weak areas in the language so as to plan for remedial teaching, teachers can look for the appropriate percentile in Tables 2, 4, 6 and 8. For example, a S. 1 pupil had the following results in JS 1A test:—

Testing Area	Usage	Reading Comprehension/ Problems Solving	Guided Writing	Listening Comprehension
Raw Score	3	13	5	9
Percentile	24.8	58.7	59.9	56.4

They reveal that in Reading Comprehension/Problems Solving, Guided Writing and Listening Comprehension, the pupil had a standard comparable to that of the average pupils in the standardization sample but he was relatively weak in usage.

5. Glossary

(*a*) Raw Score

The score given by a teacher after marking according to the answer key and the marking scheme is called the raw score.

(*b*) Standardized Score

It is inappropriate to draw direct comparison of a pupil's performance in different tests in terms of the raw scores because they have not been standardized. Before valid comparison can be made, it is necessary to convert the raw scores to scores on a common scale. Standardized score is a kind of such common-scale score.

In this handbook, the mean and the standard deviation of the standardized scores are 100 and 15 respectively. For example, in Table 1, a raw score of 33 is equivalent to a standardized score of 102.

(*c*) Percentile

The percentile provides information of the relative standing of a score in a distribution. The percentile of a test score is the percentage of scores in the distribution that falls at or below that score. Percentile ranges from 1 to 100. For example, in Table 1, the percentile of a raw score of 19 is 30. This indicates that in the standardization sample, 30% of the pupils have a raw score of 19 marks or less.

English

Norm Table—JS 1A

Raw Score	Standardized Score	Percentile	Raw Score	Standardized Score	Percentile
0	71.3	0	38	106.6	68.3
1	72.2	0	39	107.5	70.2
2	73.2	0	40	108.5	71.7
3	74.1	0.1	41	109.4	73.5
4	75.0	0.6	42	110.3	75.2
5	75.9	1.3	43	111.3	77.0
6	76.9	2.0	44	112.2	78.2
7	77.8	2.9	45	113.1	79.4
8	78.7	4.5	46	114.0	81.1
9	79.7	6.6	47	115.0	82.4
10	80.6	8.8	48	115.9	83.1
11	81.5	10.9	49	116.8	84.3
12	82.5	12.8	50	117.8	85.6
13	83.4	15.0	51	118.7	86.6
14	84.3	17.6	52	119.6	87.9
15	85.2	20.2	53	120.5	88.9
16	86.2	22.5	54	121.5	90.2
17	87.1	25.1	55	122.4	91.1
18	88.0	27.7	56	123.3	92.0
19	89.0	30.0	57	124.3	92.8
20	89.9	32.4	58	125.2	93.5
21	90.8	34.6	59	126.1	94.2
22	91.7	36.7	60	127.1	95.1
23	92.7	38.9	61	128.0	95.7
24	93.6	41.4	62	128.9	96.2
25	94.5	43.4	63	129.8	96.9
26	95.5	45.5	64	130.8	97.3
27	96.4	47.6	65	131.7	97.8
28	97.3	49.5	66	132.6	98.3
29	98.2	51.3	67	133.6	98.7
30	99.2	53.3	68	134.5	99.2
31	100.1	55.2	69	135.4	99.6
32	101.0	57.3	70	136.3	99.6
33	102.0	59.3	71	137.3	99.8
34	102.9	60.9	72	138.2	99.9
35	103.8	62.8	73	139.1	99.9
36	104.8	64.6	74	140.1	100.0
37	105.7	66.3	75	141.0	100.0

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English

Norm Table (By Testing Area)—JS 1A

Raw Score	Standardized Score	Percentile
	Usage	
0	70.5	0.6
1	75.7	3.8
2	80.9	11.6
3	86.1	24.8
4	91.3	40.0
5	96.5	54.5
6	101.8	65.9
7	107.0	75.3
8	112.2	82.4
9	117.4	88.5
10	118.1	92.5
11	127.8	95.2
12	133.0	98.7
13	138.2	99.9
	Reading Comprehension/ Problems Solving	
0	76.8	5.5
1	78.7	6.1
2	80.7	13.4
3	82.6	14.4
4	84.6	21.2
5	86.6	23.1
6	88.5	30.8
7	90.5	32.3
8	92.5	39.8
9	94.4	41.6
10	96.4	48.9
11	98.3	50.9
12	100.3	57.3
13	102.3	58.7
14	104.2	64.9
15	106.2	66.8
16	108.1	72.6
17	110.1	74.8
18	112.1	79.2
19	114.0	81.0
20	116.0	85.3
21	118.0	86.8
22	120.0	89.6
23	121.9	90.9
24	123.8	93.4
25	125.8	94.5
26	127.8	96.7
27	129.7	97.6
28	131.7	98.6
29	133.6	99.0
30	135.6	99.7
31	137.6	99.8
32	139.5	100.0
	Guided Writing	
0	82.8	24.7
1	86.4	30.0
2	90.1	37.2
3	93.8	43.7
4	97.4	52.3
5	101.1	59.9
6	104.7	67.9
7	108.4	74.5
8	112.1	80.9
9	115.7	85.3
10	119.4	89.1
11	123.0	92.6
12	126.7	95.2
13	130.3	97.1
14	134.0	98.9
15	137.7	100.0
	Listening Comprehension	
0	63.4	0.6
1	67.6	1.4
2	71.9	3.6
3	76.1	7.8
4	80.3	14.8
5	84.5	22.2
6	88.7	29.7
7	93.0	38.0
8	97.2	47.4
9	101.4	56.4
10	105.6	66.0
11	109.8	74.8
12	114.1	83.0
13	118.3	90.8
14	122.5	96.7
15	126.7	99.9

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English

Norm Table—JS 1B

Raw Score	Standardized Score	Percentile	Raw Score	Standardized Score	Percentile
0	75.5	0.2	36	107.2	68.8
1	76.4	0.3	37	108.0	70.2
2	77.3	0.6	38	108.9	71.3
3	78.1	1.3	39	109.8	72.5
4	79.0	2.2	40	110.7	73.8
5	79.9	4.0	41	111.6	75.4
6	80.8	5.7	42	112.4	76.7
7	81.7	8.6	43	113.3	78.0
8	82.5	11.2	44	114.2	78.7
9	83.4	14.2	45	115.1	80.1
10	84.3	17.7	46	116.0	81.3
11	85.2	20.7	47	116.8	82.7
12	86.1	23.4	48	117.7	84.1
13	86.9	26.5	49	118.6	85.4
14	87.8	28.9	50	119.5	86.4
15	88.7	31.7	51	120.4	87.8
16	89.6	34.1	52	121.2	89.0
17	90.5	36.4	53	122.1	90.1
18	91.3	38.4	54	123.0	91.0
19	92.2	40.5	55	123.9	91.9
20	93.1	42.4	56	124.8	93.3
21	94.0	44.3	57	125.6	94.1
22	94.9	46.3	58	126.5	95.0
23	95.7	48.4	59	127.4	95.6
24	96.6	50.0	60	128.3	96.4
25	97.5	51.4	61	129.2	97.0
26	98.4	53.4	62	130.0	97.5
27	99.3	55.0	63	130.9	98.1
28	100.1	56.6	64	131.8	98.8
29	101.0	58.4	65	132.7	99.1
30	101.9	59.8	66	133.6	99.5
31	102.8	61.6	67	134.4	99.7
32	103.6	62.8	68	135.3	99.9
33	104.5	64.6	69	136.2	100.0
34	105.4	66.1	70	137.1	100.0
35	106.3	67.4			

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English

Norm Table (By Testing Area)—JS 1B

Raw Score	Standardized Score	Percentile
	Usage	
0	76.0	3.0
1	80.9	11.6
2	85.9	24.9
3	90.8	41.0
4	95.8	53.7
5	100.7	63.5
6	105.7	71.5
7	110.6	78.0
8	115.6	84.3
9	120.5	90.4
10	125.5	94.6
11	130.4	98.1
12	135.4	100.0
	Reading Comprehension/ Problems Solving	
0	81.5	14.8
1	83.3	16.0
2	85.2	27.5
3	87.0	28.6
4	88.9	36.6
5	90.8	37.7
6	92.6	44.3
7	94.5	45.2
8	96.3	50.1
9	98.2	51.5
10	100.1	56.4
11	101.9	58.0
12	103.8	63.6
13	105.6	65.1
14	107.5	69.5
15	109.3	70.7
16	111.2	75.2
17	113.1	76.5
18	114.9	80.8
19	116.8	81.9
20	118.6	86.7
21	120.5	87.7
22	122.4	92.2
23	124.2	93.3
24	126.1	97.0
25	127.9	97.5
26	129.8	99.1
27	131.6	99.3
28	133.5	100.0
	Guided Writing	
0	82.6	19.4
1	86.3	28.1
2	90.0	37.4
3	93.7	45.9
4	97.4	54.6
5	101.1	62.0
6	104.8	69.4
7	108.5	74.5
8	112.2	80.3
9	115.9	85.0
10	119.6	88.8
11	123.3	91.9
12	126.9	94.6
13	130.6	97.1
14	134.3	99.4
15	138.0	100.0
	Listening Comprehension	
0	65.7	0.6
1	69.8	1.9
2	73.9	5.2
3	78.1	10.2
4	82.2	16.6
5	86.3	24.5
6	90.4	33.8
7	94.5	43.0
8	98.7	52.1
9	102.8	61.3
10	106.9	70.2
11	111.0	77.4
12	115.2	84.0
13	119.3	90.9
14	123.4	95.9
15	127.5	100.0

Distribution of Items Among Various Testing Areas

Testing Area	Secondary 1						Secondary 2			Secondary 3		
	Test A			Test B								
	Section	No. of Items	Score	Section	No. of Items	Score	Section	No. of Items	Score	Section	No. of Items	Score
1. Usage	A–B	13	13	A–B	12	12	A–B	20	20	A–B	17	17
2. Reading Comprehension/ Problems Solving	C–E	16	32	C–E	14	28	C–E	15	30	C–E	15	30
3. Guided Writing	F	5	15	F	5	15	F	a composition of about 80–100 words	30	F	a composition of about 100–200 words	35
4. Listening Comprehension	G	15	15	G	15	15	G	20	20	G	16	16
Total		49	75		46	70		55 + a composition	100		48 + a composition	98

Hong Kong Attainment Tests

(Junior Secondary, Series I) English

JS–1 Test A

ANSWER SHEET

JS–1A

(A–F)

For Official Use Only
(1) (6) A

Name of School: _____
學校名稱

Name of Pupil: _____ Class: _____
學生姓名 班別

Class No.: (7) ☐☐ 班號

ID Card No.: (9) ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐( ) 身份證號碼

Sex: (17) ☐ M/F 性別 男／女

Date of Birth: 19 (18) ☐☐ YEAR 年 ☐☐ MONTH 月 (23) ☐☐ DAY 日
出生日期

Test Date: _____
測驗日期

Section A (8 marks) @ 1 mark

		Marks 分數
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		

(24)

Section B (5 marks) @ 1 mark

		Marks 分數
9.		
10.		
11.		
12.		
13.		

(32)

Section C (8 marks) @ 2 marks

		Marks 分數
14.		
15.		
16.		
17.		

(37)

Section D (16 marks) @ 2 marks

		Marks 分數
18.		
19.		
20.		
21.		
22.		
23.		
24.		
25.		

(41)

(48)

For Teacher's Use Only	
Section	Score
A	
B	
C	
D	
E	
F	
TOTAL	

Go On To Page 2
翻閱第二頁

Section E (8 marks) @ 2 marks

Marks 分數 (49)

26. _____

27. _____

28. _____

29. _____

Section F (15 marks) @ 3 marks

This is how Mary Cheng spends her weekends.

Marks 分數 (53)

30. In the morning, she _____

31. In the afternoon, she _____

32. In the evening, she _____

33. At about ten o'clock, she _____

34. She always likes weekends because _____ (57)

_____

END OF SECTIONS A–F
A–F 部測驗完

Hong Kong Attainment Tests

(Junior Secondary, Series I) English

JS–1A Section G (Listening Test)

ANSWER SHEET

JS–1A

(G)

For Official Use Only
(1) A (6)

Name of School: _____
學校名稱

Name of Pupil: _____ Class: _____
學生姓名 班別

Class No.: (7) 班號 ID Card No.: (9) 身份證號碼 ( ) Sex: (17) 性別 M/F 男／女

Date of Birth: 19 (18) YEAR 年 MONTH 月 (23) DAY 日 Test Date: _____
出生日期 測驗日期

Section G (15 marks) @ 1 mark

		Marks 分數
1.	(24)	
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		
11.	(34)	
12.		
13.		
14.		
15.	(38)	

For Teacher's Use Only
Total Score

END OF TEST
測驗卷完

Hong Kong Attainment Tests

JS–1 B

(Junior Secondary, Series I) English

(A–F)

JS–1 Test B

ANSWER SHEET

For Official Use Only
(1) (6) B

ame of School: _____
校名稱

ame of Pupil: _____ Class: _____
生姓名 班別

lass No.: (7) ☐☐ ID Card No.: (9) ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐☐( ) Sex: (17) ☐ M/F
號 身份證號碼 性別 男／女

ate of Birth: 19 (18) ☐☐ YEAR 年 ☐☐ MONTH 月 (23) ☐☐ DAY 日 Test Date: _____
生日期 測驗日期

Section A (8 marks) @ 1 mark

		Marks 分數
1.		(24)
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		

Section B (4 marks) @ 1 mark

		Marks 分數
9.		(32)
10.		
11.		
12.		

Section C (8 marks) @ 2 marks

		Marks 分數
13.		(36)
14.		
15.		
16.		

Section D (8 marks) @ 2 marks

		Marks 分數
17.		(40)
18.		
19.		(43)
20.		

For Teacher's Use Only	
Section	Score
A	
B	
C	
D	
E	
F	
TOTAL	

Go On To Page 2
翻閱第二頁

Section E (12 marks) @ 2 marks

Marks 分數

21. _____ (44)

22. _____

23. _____

24. _____

25. _____

26. _____

Section F (15 marks) @ 3 marks

Marks 分數

27. David Wong is _____ (50)

28. He spends _____

29. He _____

30. He is _____ (54)

31. and _____

END OF SECTIONS A–F
A–F 部測驗完

Hong Kong Attainment Tests

(Junior Secondary, Series I) English

JS–1B Section G (Listening Test)

ANSWER SHEET

JS–1B

(G)

For Official Use Only
(1) (6) B

Name of School: _____
學校名稱

Name of Pupil: _____ Class: _____
學生姓名 班別

Class No.: (7) ☐☐
班號

ID Card No.: (9) ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐( )
身份證號碼

Sex: (17) ☐ M/F
性別 男／女

Date of Birth: 19 (18) ☐☐ ☐☐ (23) ☐☐ Test Date: _____
出生日期 YEAR 年 MONTH 月 DAY 日 測驗日期

Part One (10 marks) @ 1 mark

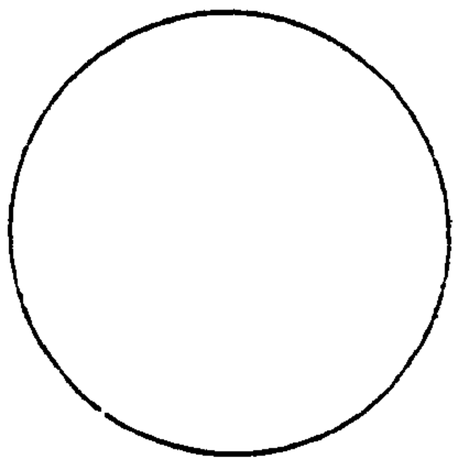
		Marks 分數
1.	(24)	
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

		Marks 分數
6.	(29)	
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		

For Teacher's Use Only	
Part	Score
One	
Two	
TOTAL	

Part Two (5 marks) @ 1 mark

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9



Marks 分數

(34)

11. _____

12. _____

13. _____

14. _____ (38)

15. _____

END OF TEST
測驗卷完

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English JS-1A

Answer Key and Marking Scheme

Total Marks: 75 marks

Section A

(8 marks) @ 1 mark

— 1 mark for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

1. D
2. D
3. C
4. D
5. B
6. C
7. A
8. D

Section B

(5 marks) @ 1 mark

— 1 mark for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

9. D
10. A
11. D
12. C
13. B

Section C

(8 marks) @ 2 marks

— 1 mark for using a suitable word

— 1 mark for correct form and spelling

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

14. evening
15. What
16. drink/follow
17. have/take/try

Section D

(16 marks) @ 2 marks

— 1 mark for using a suitable word

— 1 mark for correct form and spelling

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

18. clothes/things
19. fifteen/15
20. met/saw/greeted/encountered
21. Japan
22. before/preceeding
23. nine/9
24. phone/telephone/ring/call
25. 6/six

Section E

(8 marks) @ 2 marks

— 2 marks for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

26. May
27. brown
28. hospital/King Albert Hospital/King Albert
29. Morning

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English JS-1A

Answer Key and Marking Scheme

Section F

(15 marks) @ 3 marks

0 mark	Incomprehensible in meaning or direct copying.	e.g. In the morning, she is breakfast. In the morning, she homework.
1 mark	Content correct but with more than one language error.	e.g. In the morning, she washing the plate and bowls.
2 marks	Content correct but with one language error.	e.g. In the evening, she watch television.
3 marks	Correct response (content and language correct).	e.g. In the afternoon, she likes to help her mother in the kitchen.

30–34 Guided Writing

Section G

(15 marks) @ 1 mark

— 1 mark for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

1. B
2. A
3. A
4. B
5. D
6. C
7. C
8. D
9. A
10. A
11. C
12. A
13. B
14. A
15. C

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English JS-1B

Answer Key and Marking Scheme

Total Marks: 70 marks

Section A

(8 marks) @ 1 mark

— 1 mark for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

1. D
2. C
3. A
4. C
5. D
6. A
7. D
8. C

Section B

(4 marks) @ 1 mark

— 1 mark for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

9. D
10. B
11. A
12. C

Section C

(8 marks) @ 2 marks

— 1 mark for using a suitable word

— 1 mark for correct form and spelling

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

13. weather
14. morning
15. temperature
16. end

Section D

(8 marks) @ 2 marks

— 1 mark for using a suitable word

— 1 mark for correct form and spelling

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

17. less
18. three/3/different/various
19. or
20. B

Section E

(12 marks) @ 2 marks

— 2 marks for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

21. Fire and Ice
22. Two/2/two/Two shows
23. $80/Eighty dollars/eighty dollars
24. H.K. Music Centre
25. Now/Today/now/today/To-day/to-day
26. Hong Kong Coliseum/in (the) Hong Kong Coliseum

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English JS-1B

Answer Key and Marking Scheme

Section F

(15 marks) @ 3 marks

(*a*) 0 mark	incomprehensible in meaning or direct copying	e.g. He often test results is very good. David Wong is student, form, school.
(*b*) 1 mark	content correct but with more than one language error	e.g. He is plays basketball very good.
(*c*) 2 marks	content correct but with one language error	e.g. He spends some times in the library.
(*d*) 3 marks	correct response (content and language correct)	e.g. He is good at basketball.

27–31 Guided Writing

Section G

(15 marks) @ 1 mark

— 1 mark for each correct answer

— 0 mark for any incorrect answer

Part One (10 marks) @ 1 mark

1. A
2. C
3. D
4. B
5. A
6. A
7. C
8. A
9. D
10. C

(Junior Secondary Series 1)

English JS-1B

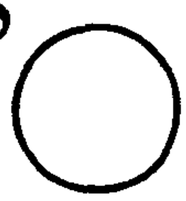
Answer Key and Marking Scheme

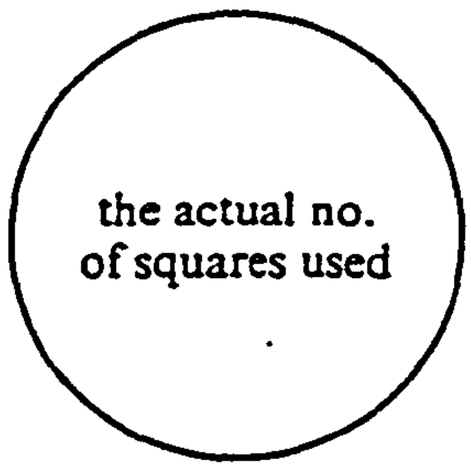
Section G

Part Two (5 marks) @ 1 mark

— 1 mark for each correct answer in square nos. 3, 5, 7 and 8

— 1 mark for the correct answer in the circle

1	2	3 surname
4	5 	6
7 	8 SHIP	9



11. Answer in square no. 8
12. Answer in square no. 5
13. Answer in square no. 3
14. Answer in square no. 7
15. Answer in the big circle

HONG KONG ATTAINMENT TESTS

Series 1

English

Junior Secondary 1

Test B

Educational Research Establishment
Education Department, Hong Kong

Instructions

1. Answer all questions.
2. Write your answers on the answer sheet.
3. Do not write anything in this test booklet.

考生須知

1. 所有題目，必須作答。
2. 將答案寫在答題紙上。
3. 切勿塗寫此測驗卷。

Time allowed for the test

Sections A–F : 30 minutes.

Section G (Listening Test): 12 minutes.

測驗時間

A 至 F 部 ：30 分鐘。

G 部 (聆聽測驗) ：12 分鐘。

Write your answers on the answer sheet.
將答案寫在答題紙上。

Do not write anything in this test booklet.
切勿塗寫此測驗卷。

Section A (8 marks)

Make the most suitable choice to complete each item, and write the letter (A, B, C, or D) on the answer sheet.
試選擇每題最適當之答案，並在答題紙上填寫該答案前之英文字母（A，B，C或D）。

1. They _____ hurry. They are very late.

   A. need not

   B. need

   C. must not

   D. must

2. He takes his dog _____ a walk.

   A. in

   B. by

   C. for

   D. to

3. Mary: _____ is your sister?

   John: She's getting better now, thank you.

   A. How

   B. Who

   C. What

   D. Which

4. Spring is the _____ between winter and summer.

   A. month

   B. festival

   C. season

   D. weather

5. Jane: _____ is the Space Museum from here?

   John: It's just round the corner.

   A. How soon

   B. Which

   C. When

   D. How far

6. The roof is very low. A warning sign says: _____ .

   A. Mind Your Head

   B. Watch Your Step

   C. Danger

   D. Do Not Touch

7. Bob is bad at swimming but Mike is even _____ .

   A. good

   B. best

   C. the worst

   D. worse

8. Students are not allowed to write _____ pencil.

   A. at

   B. for

   C. in

   D. on

Section B (4 marks)

Choose the most suitable and polite response for each of the following situations, and write the letter (A, B, C or D) on the answer sheet.
試就所述之場合，選出最適當而且是有禮貌之應對。將答案前之英文字母（A，B，C或D）寫在答題紙上。

9. May: How's your family?

   Paul: _____

   A. There are four of them.

   B. That's all right.

   C. It's very nice, thank you.

   D. They're all well, thank you.

10. Tim: Pass the sugar please, Alice.

    Alice: _____

    A. Help yourself.

    B. Here you are.

    C. Yes, go ahead.

    D. Not for me, thank you.

11. Your classmate tells you that he has got full marks in the test.

    You say: _____

    A. Congratulations.

    B. Not at all.

    C. Same to you.

    D. All the best.

12. Tom: How often do you go to the beach?

May: _____

A. I always go with my father.

B. I've been there before.

C. Whenever I get the chance.

D. I usually go by bus.

Section C (8 marks)

Fill in each blank with one suitable word.
試用適當的單字填入各空格內。

Good evening. Here is the _____(13)_____ forecast for tomorrow. It will be cloudy in the _____(14)_____ but there will be sunny periods in the afternoon. Strong winds will be blowing from a south-easterly direction. The _____(15)_____ will be between 13°C and 15°C. That's the _____(16)_____ of the forecast.

Section D (8 marks)

Read the following questions carefully. Use the information provided to complete each blank with one suitable word.
細閱下列各題目，依據提供內容，用適當的單字填入各空格內。

Breakfast A

7.30 a.m.–10.00 a.m.

Tea

* * *

Noodles with chicken
or beef

* * *

Dim Sum
(barbecued pork buns,
spring rolls, chicken feet).

* * *

S10 (service charge included)

Breakfast B

8.00 a.m.–10.30 a.m.

Orange Juice
or
Tomato Juice

* * *

Fried eggs with
ham/bacon

* * *

Toast with jam
and butter

* * *

Tea or Coffee

* * *

S8 (no service charge)

Breakfast B is ____(17)____ expensive than Breakfast A.

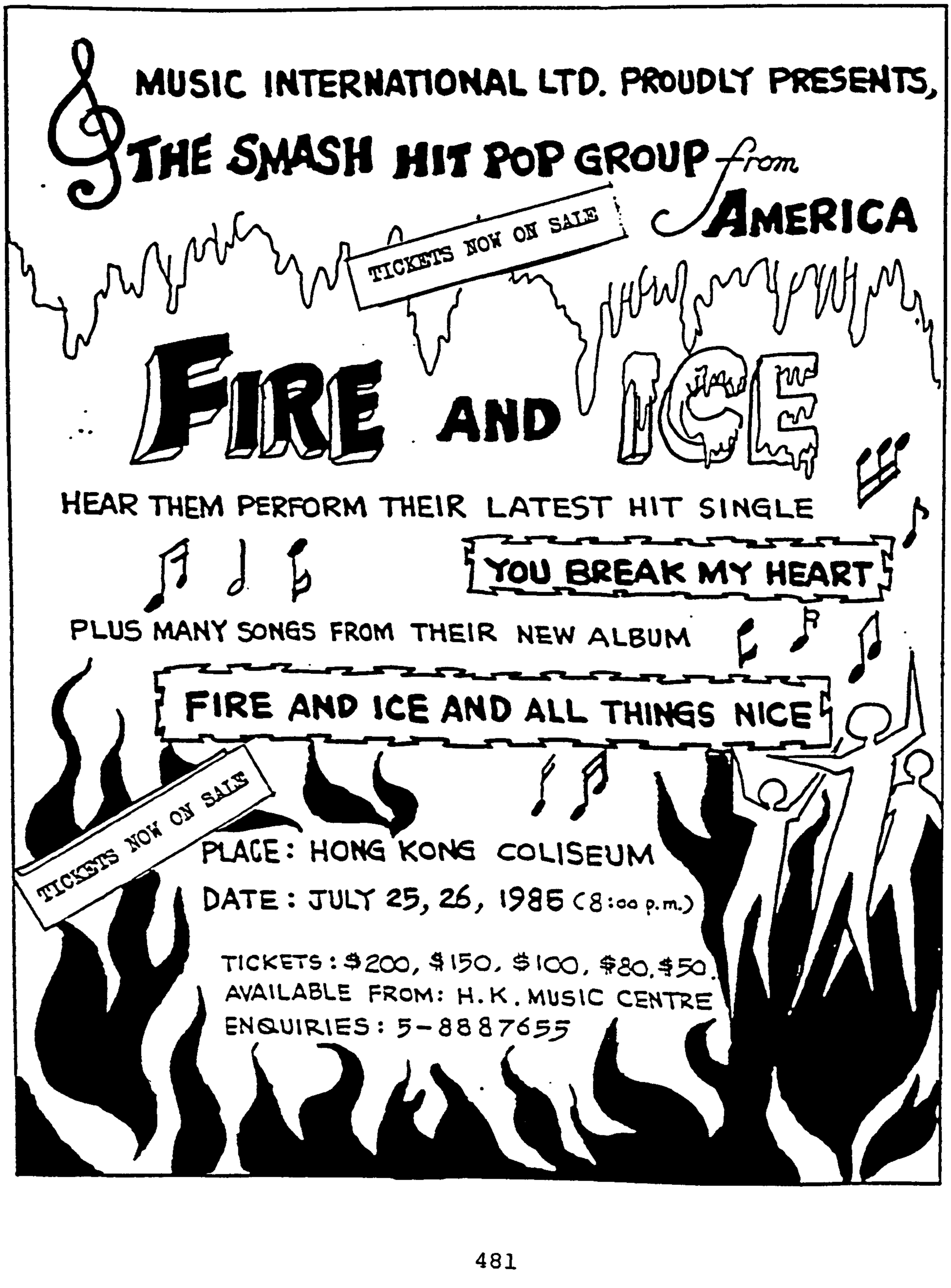
For Breakfast A, there are ____(18)____ kinds of dim sum to eat.

For Breakfast B, you can have fried eggs with ham ____(19)____ fried eggs with bacon.

It is now a quarter past ten in the morning. You can only have Breakfast ____(20)____ .

Section E (12 marks)

Based on the information below, answer the following questions. You need not answer in complete sentences.
依據下面記錄內容，作答下面各題。不須用整句作答。



21. What is the name of the pop group?

_____

22. How many shows will they perform in Hong Kong?

_____

23. How much is the second cheapest ticket for the concert?

_____

24. Where can you buy tickets for the concert?

_____

25. When can you buy tickets for the concert?

_____

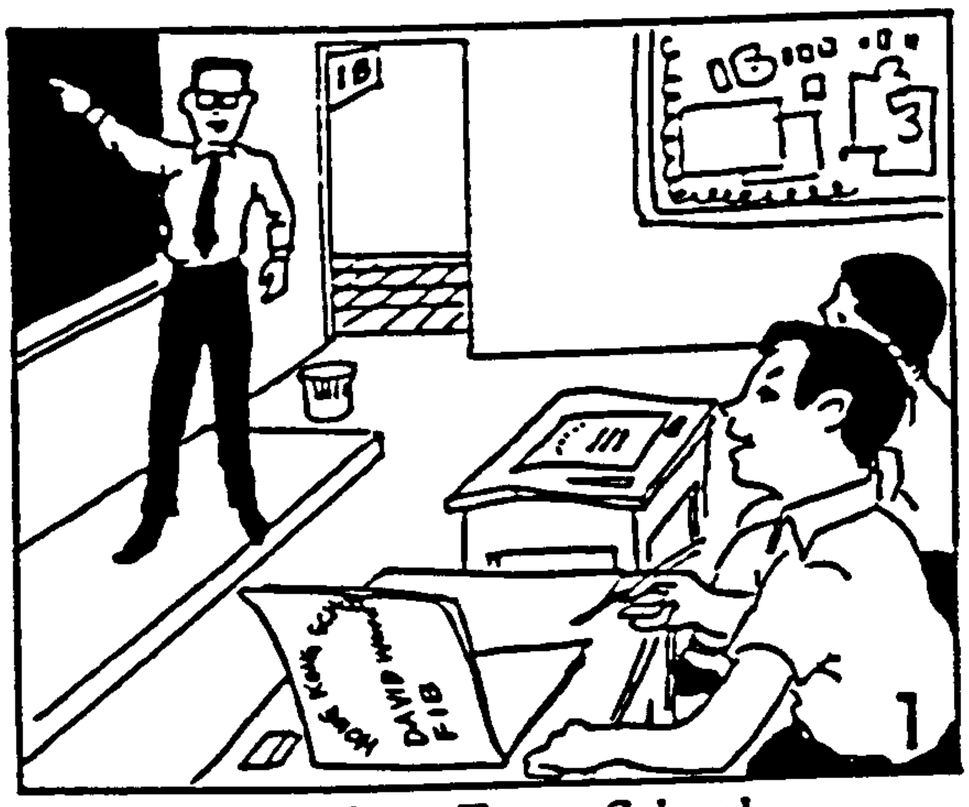
26. Where will the concert be held?

_____

Go On To Page 8
翻閱第八頁

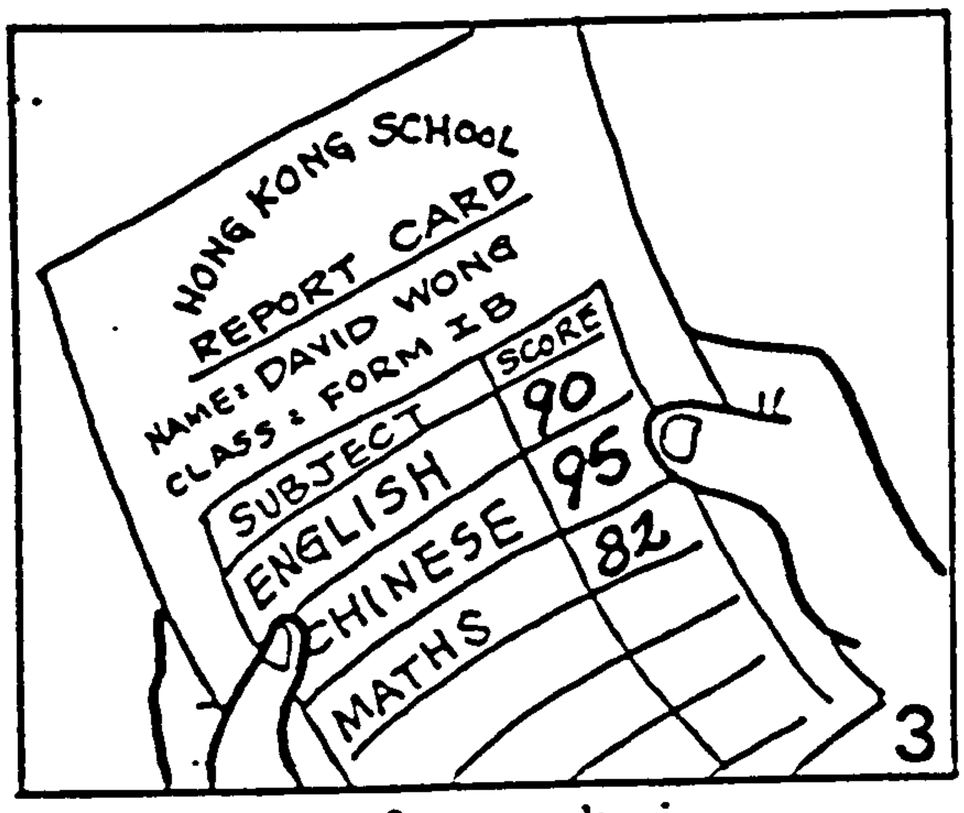
Section F (15 marks)

Guided Writing. With the help of the pictures and the words below, complete the composition. You must use all the words given.
依提示寫作。借助各圖畫的內容及其下面的文字去完成一段文章。必須採用所有圖畫下面的文字寫作。

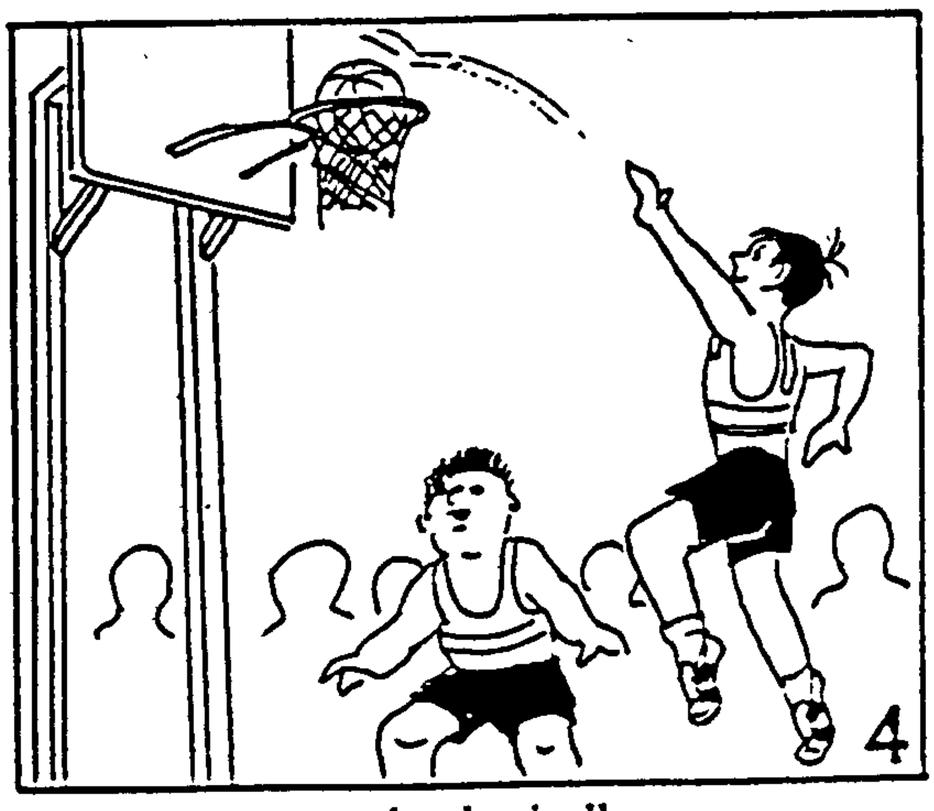


student, Form, School

some, time, library



often, results, in



basketball

captain, team

David Wong is _____ (27) _____

He spends _____ (28) _____

He _____ (29) _____

He is _____ (30) _____

and _____ (31) _____

END OF SECTIONS A–F

A 至 F 部測驗完

Section G (15 marks)

LISTENING TEST

英語聆聽測驗

Time allowed: 12 minutes.
時限：12分鐘。

Instructions

1. Answer all questions.
2. Write your answers on the answer sheet.
3. Do not write anything in this test booklet.

考生須知

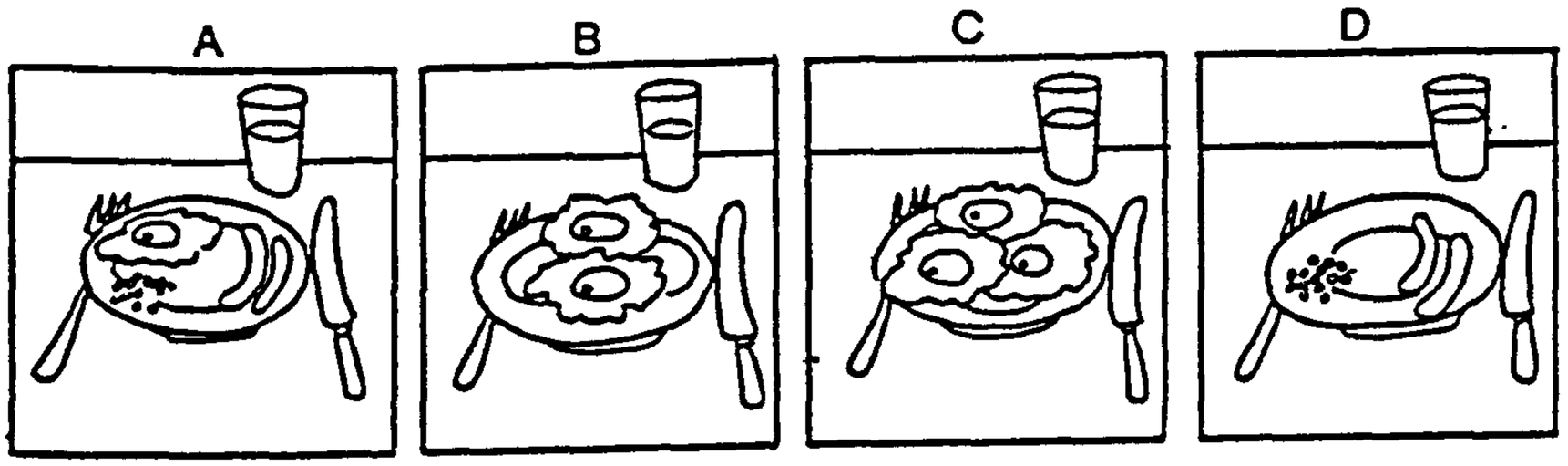
1. 所有題目，必須作答。
2. 將答案寫在答題紙上。
3. 切勿塗寫此測驗卷。

PART ONE
第一部

There are two parts in this test. In Part One, you will hear some short statements. These statements are about the pictures you have in your question book. You have to choose one picture, A, B, C, or D in each case, according to the statement you hear. Here is an example:

這測驗分兩部分。在第一部，你會聽到一些短句。這些短句是描述測驗卷上的圖畫。請你從圖A，B，C或D中，選擇最貼切的一幅。看看下面一個舉例：

EXAMPLE
舉例



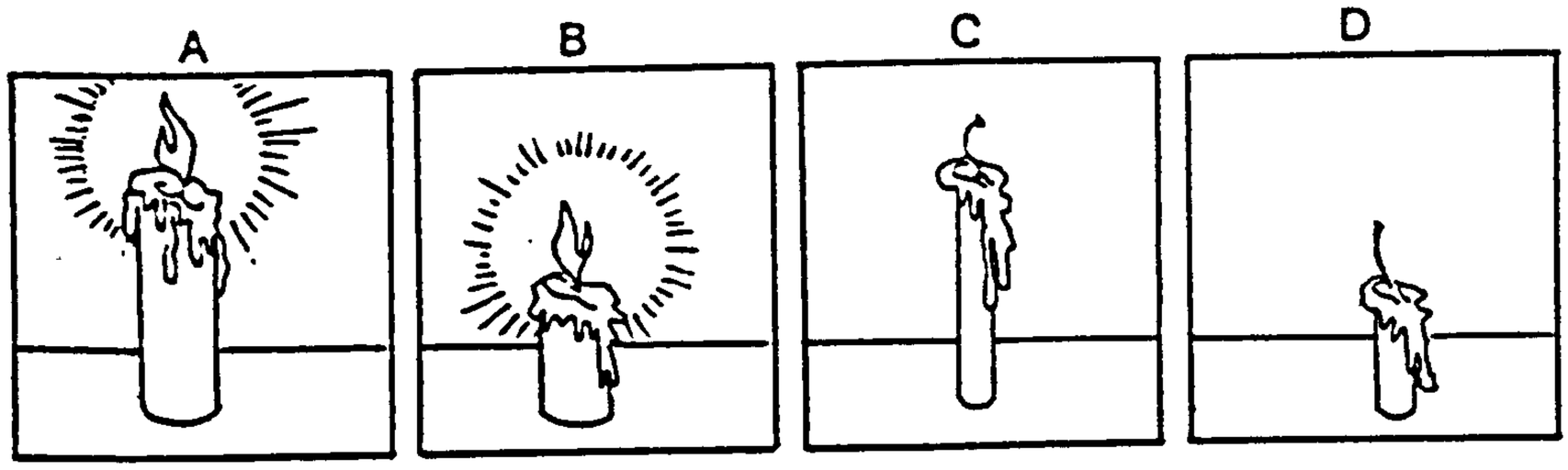
There are just two eggs on the plate.

Picture A has one egg.	圖A　有一隻蛋。
Picture C has three eggs.	圖C　有三隻蛋。
Picture D has no eggs, and	圖D　沒有蛋，而
Picture B has two eggs.	圖B　有兩隻蛋。
So 'B' is the correct answer.	所以'B'是正確的答案。

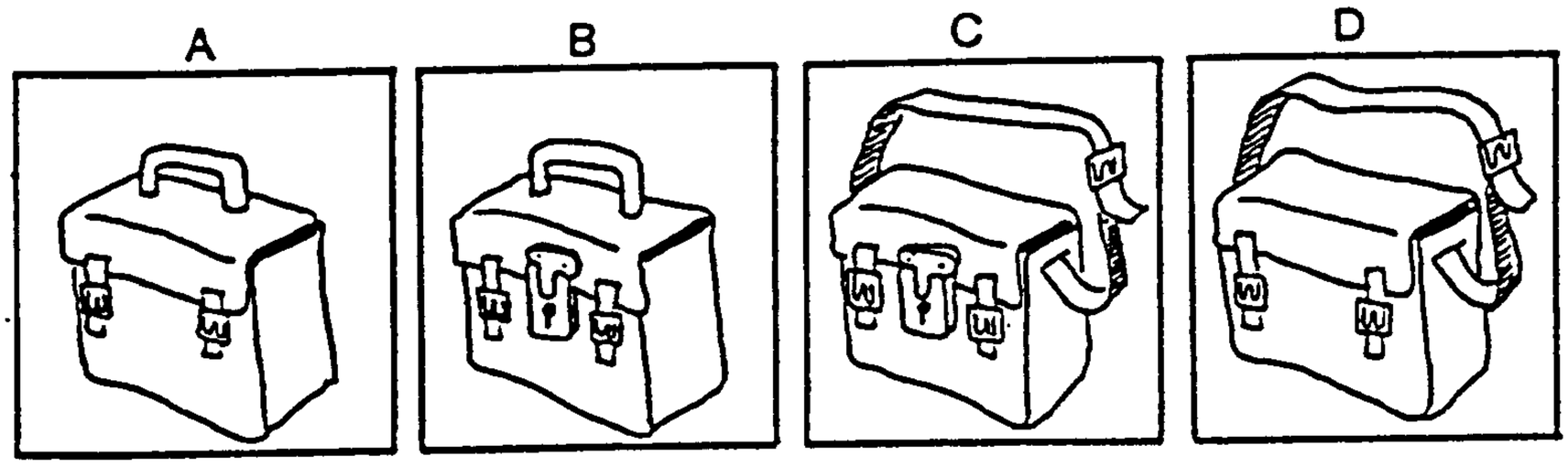
小心聆聽，現在測驗開始。
Listen carefully. The test will now begin.

PART ONE
第一部

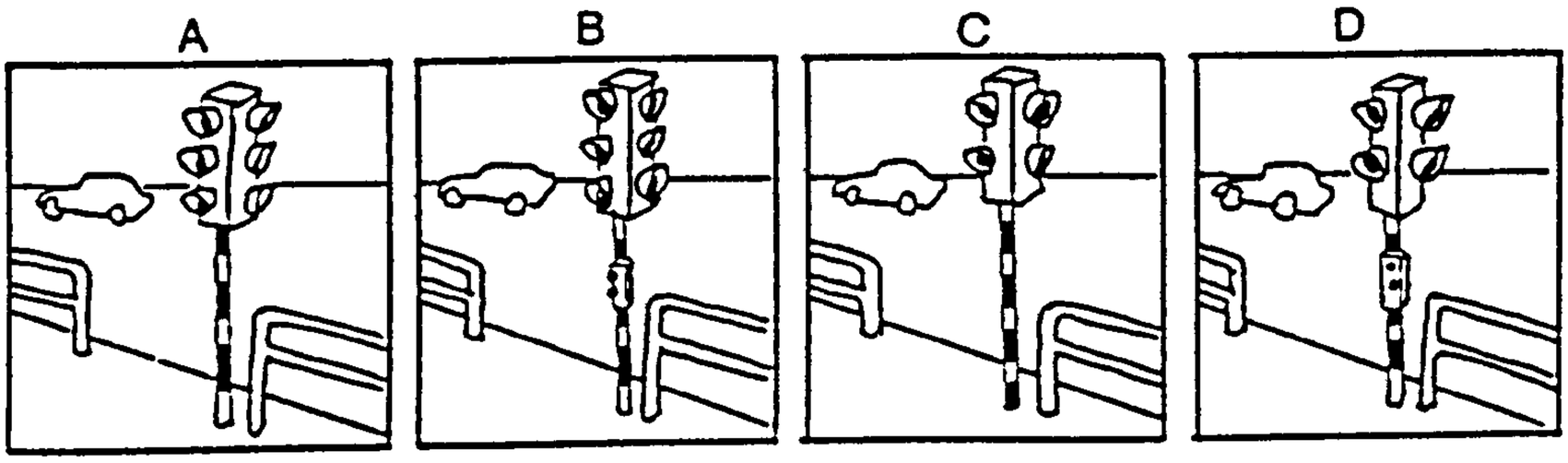
1.



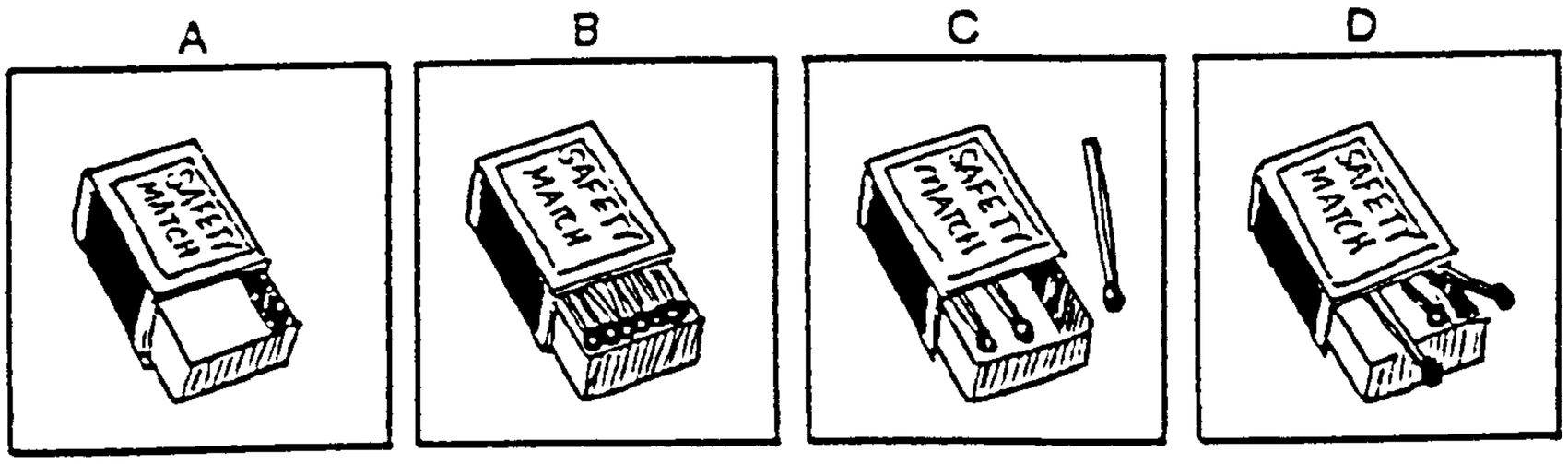
2.



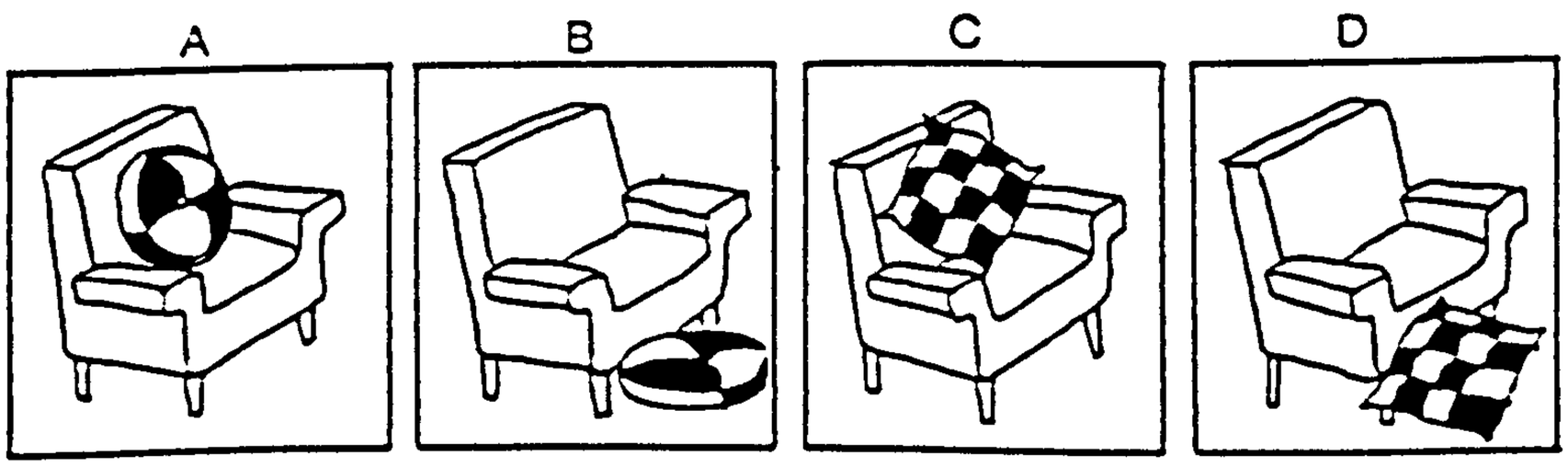
3.



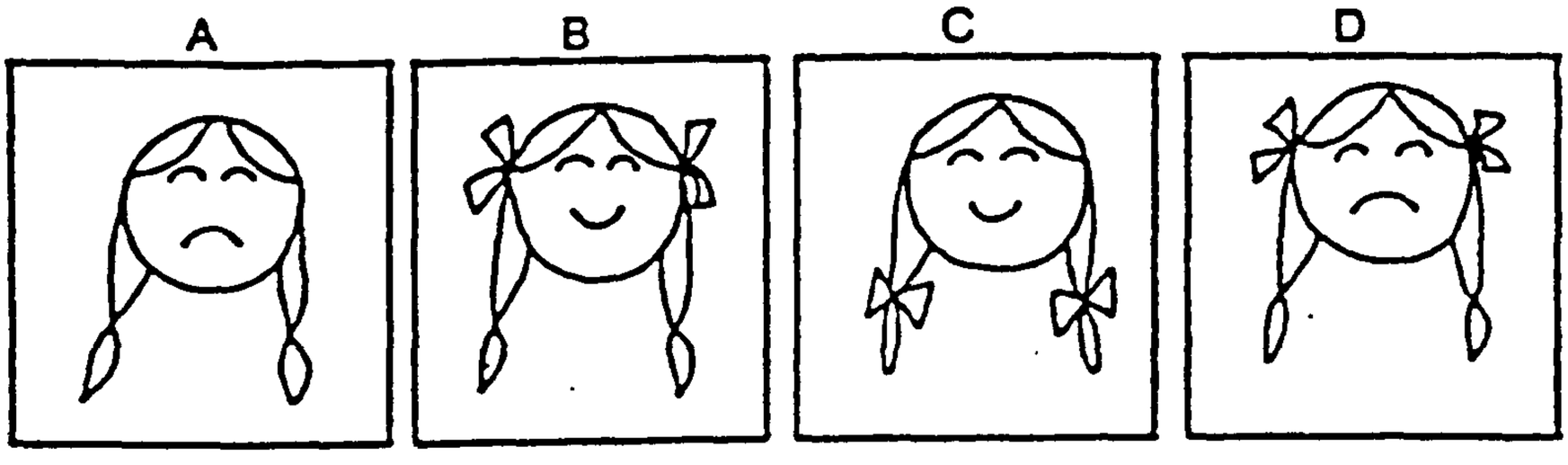
4.



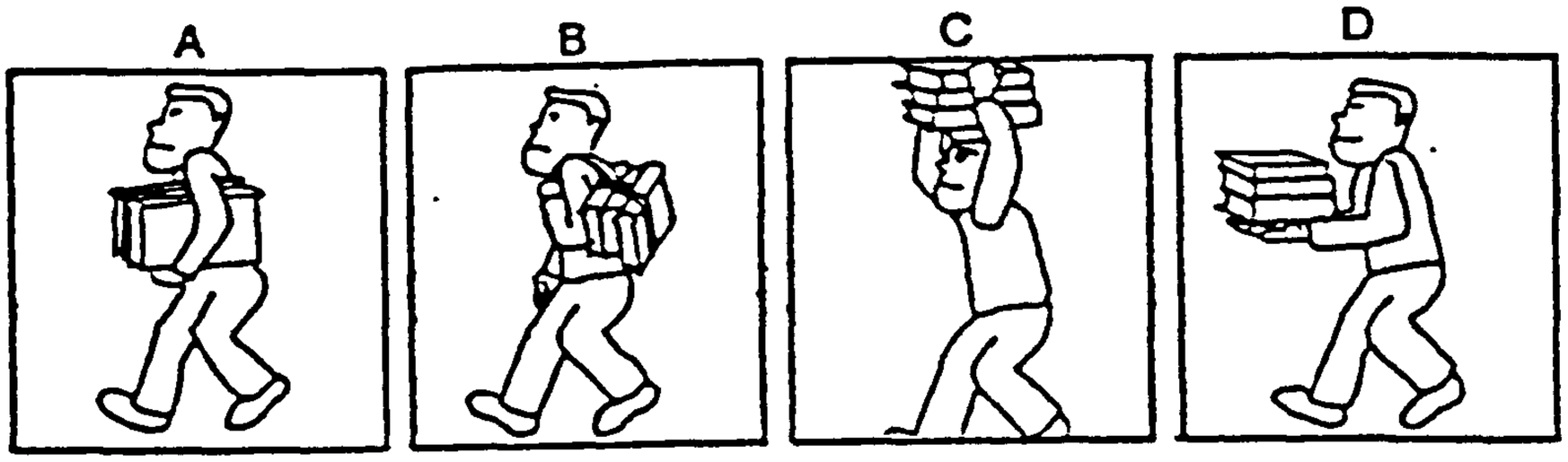
5.



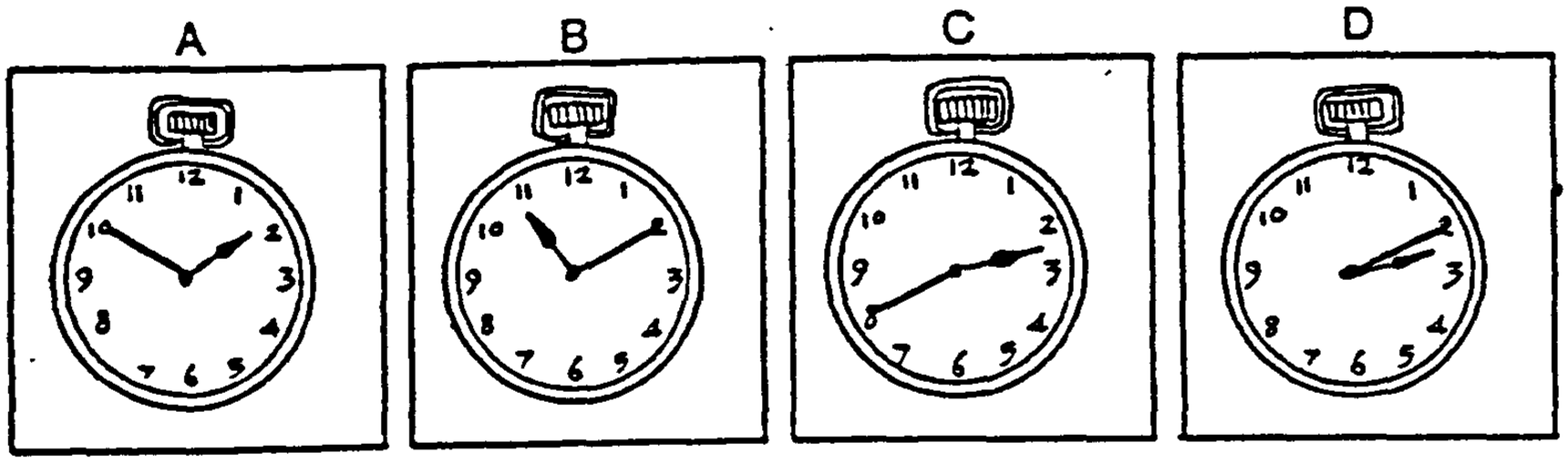
6.



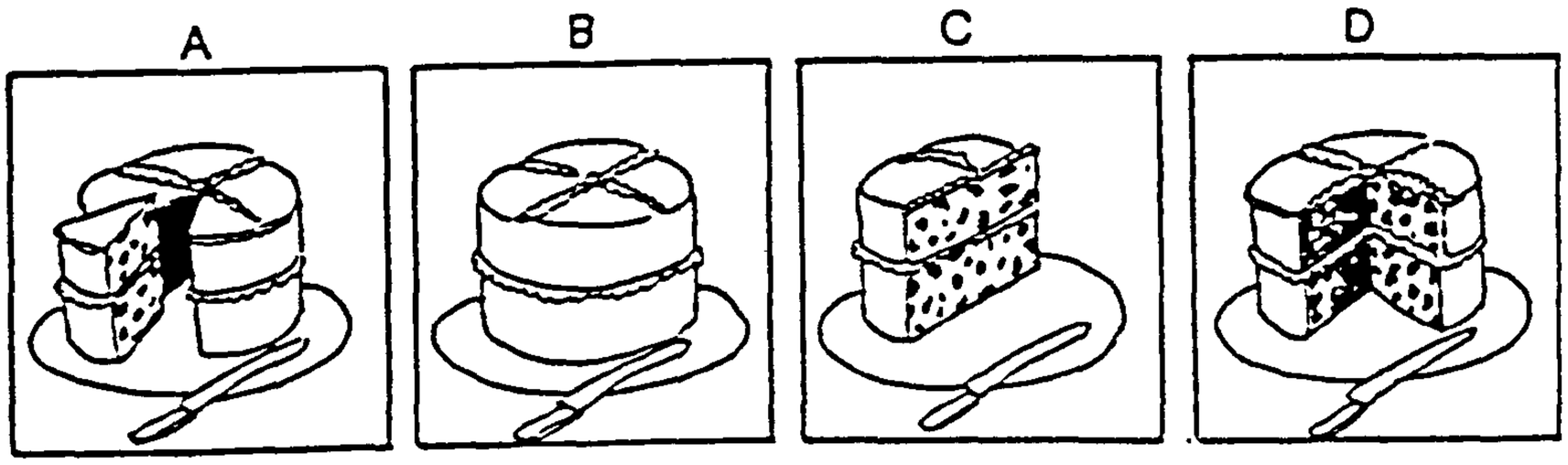
7.



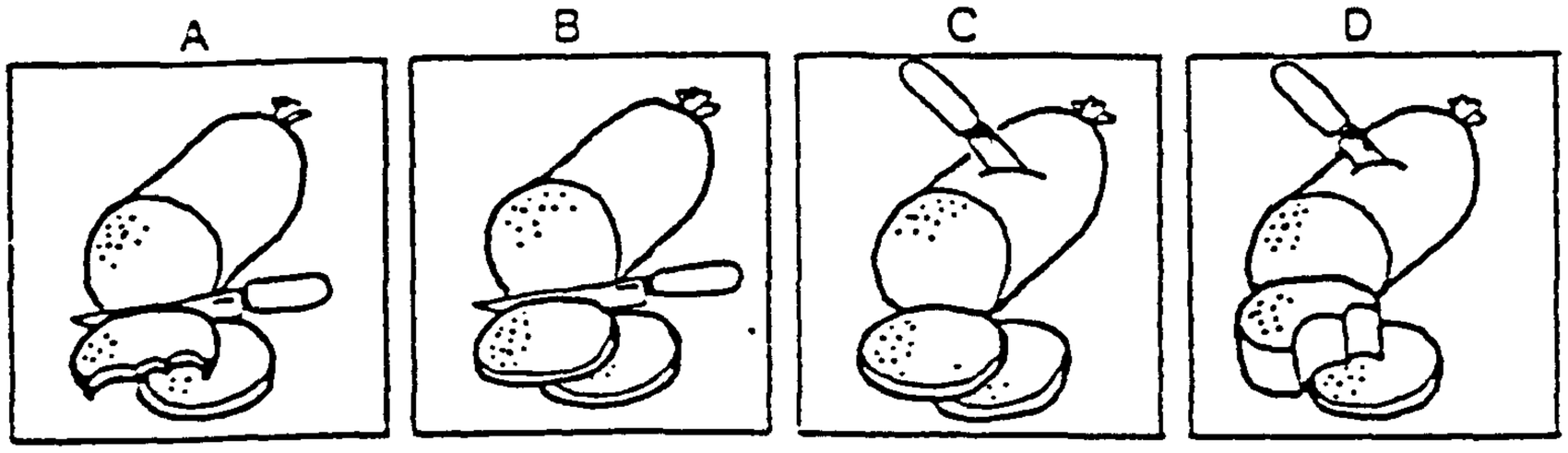
8.



9.



10.



END OF PART ONE. PLEASE GO ON TO PART TWO.

第一部分測驗完。 請繼續作答第二部分。

PART TWO
第二部

In Part Two, you will hear five instructions. You will hear each instruction twice. Listen carefully and do what the instruction tells you.

在第二部，你會聽到五個指示。每個指示你會聽到兩次。小心聆聽，並依照指示去做。

小心聆聽，現在測驗開始。
Listen carefully. The test will now begin.

END OF TEST
測驗卷完

Appendix 24a

Scores of English Attainment Test A (F.1D)

Class No.	Usage (3)	Reading Compre. (32)	Guided Writing (15)	Listening (15)	Total (75)
1	5	12	4	7	28
2	5	15	6	12	38
3	4	18	9	14	45
4	6	14	7	11	38
5	-	-	-	-	-
6	9	18	6	11	44
7	8	14	4	13	39
8	10	17	6	9	42
9	7	13	5	9	34
10	6	14	10	11	41
11	4	18	10	13	45
12	-	-	-	-	-
13	-	-	-	-	-
14	9	18	10	12	49
15	8	13	6	12	39
16	7	18	6	12	43
17	-	-	-	-	-
18	-	-	-	-	-
19	8	19	6	13	46
20	8	16	8	12	44
21	5	15	14	8	42
22	4	19	13	12	48
23	8	26	5	14	53
24	10	18	0	15	43
25	8	15	7	14	44
26	6	11	1	8	26
27	-	-	-	-	-
28	11	26	8	14	59
29	-	-	-	-	-
30	7	15	6	14	42
31	9	19	7	9	44
32	5	9	6	5	25
33	5	15	10	11	41
34	4	12	9	8	33
35	-	-	-	-	-
36	10	19	4	13	46
37	8	14	8	13	43
38	5	16	9	14	44
39	6	15	6	11	38
40	5	18	5	12	40
41	10	14	5	15	44
42	4	14	6	7	31
43	7	16	4	13	40

Appendix 14b

Scores of English Attainment Test B (F.1D)

Class No.	Usage (3)	Reading Compre. (32)	Guided Writing (15)	Listening (15)	Total (75)
1	5	10	4	12	31
2	5	17	2	9	33
3	-	-	-	-	-
4	7	19	2	10	38
5	4	20	6	13	43
6	9	20	5	11	45
7	6	20	8	12	46
8	7	19	9	10	45
9	5	16	11	13	45
10	2	20	7	12	41
11	8	20	5	13	46
12	9	19	8	13	49
13	7	19	9	10	45
14	9	20	4	10	43
15	9	16	4	12	39
16	8	12	6	9	35
17	10	27	12	15	64
18	6	16	7	15	44
19	8	24	9	10	51
20	8	22	9	13	52
21	10	18	6	9	43
22	5	18	9	11	43
23	7	26	10	13	56
24	9	21	10	14	54
25	6	17	10	12	45
26	5	4	3	8	20
27	9	23	9	12	53
28	10	24	9	15	58
29	8	18	9	13	48
30	8	23	8	11	50
31	7	17	9	12	45
32	1	12	2	7	22
33	7	16	10	13	46
34	9	20	7	12	48
35	5	12	5	12	34
36	8	19	10	14	51
37	4	17	8	9	38
38	8	18	11	12	49
39	8	25	8	12	53
40	10	25	7	13	55
41	7	17	10	14	48
42	3	11	8	9	31
43	6	13	4	11	34

Diary Notes

Diary notes on how students reacted to various 2L-LEA sessions were taken by me from a teacher-researcher's point of view. The following is the polished version of the crude diary notes plus some thinkings in retrospect on the various 2L-LEA sessions. The diary notes of 2L-LEA activities are organized by putting them under headings of `Students' Reaction', `Evidence' (if any), and `Teacher's Feeling'. This is to give some descriptive information mainly about students' response to these activities. As for the procedures of the sessions, please refer to Section VI.4.3.5.

1. Icebreaking and Orientation (2 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students did well in the activity of introducing their neighbours.	a. No help from the teacher was needed.
b. Students were shy and unused to a more open classroom.	b. In the free association exercise, they were hesitant to walk to the blackboard voluntarily and needed a lot of encouragement and reassurance from the teacher.
c. All students, except one, were able to write their associations to the cues given. Most of their associations seemed to suggest that their frame of reference was very much school-bound. No associations of feelings were found from their responses. The responses gave me an impression that English/English lesson was not something inspiring to the students.	c. The followings were what students wrote on the board. The number in the brackets indicated the number of students giving the same response. Book (6) Math (3) Chinese (3) Test (3) Teacher (2) History (1) Workbook (1) End of lesson (1) The above associations were all written in English except for the last one.
d. After the free association exercise and my attempt to analyse the associations, the classroom atmosphere was more relaxed.	d. Students laughed more readily and looked interested.

Teacher's Feelings:

I felt good for both the students and I got to know each other better after this lesson.

2. Group Experience Stories -- My New School (2 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. The group attempting Question 2 (Appendix 14) discussed most excitedly and decided to write about the special rooms and activities in the school.	a. They took the initiative to ask the teacher to help them with spelling and translating Chinese terms into English.
b. Students did not have much ideas, especially with questions which asked them of their own feeling or opinion.	b. They were stuck and could not write down anything on their paper for more than 10 minutes. When asked why, they said they could not think of anything to write. I had to go to each group and give suggestions of ideas. The groups attempting questions 1 and 3 respectively needed help specially with ideas.
c. Students were quiet in the second period as their work was returned in the printed form.	c. Students did not say anything special or reacted in a special way.

Teacher's Feeling :
Students could have been made more involved in the second period if I had asked them to explain to other groups the new words they used in the answers. This could also help to strengthen their sense of ownership of the piece of writing they had produced.

3. Directed Writing -- My New School (2 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students looked confident and more relaxed with the writing task.	a. Students were able to start writing right away and were willing to ask the teacher for help.

4. Class Experience Story -- Classroom English (1 1/2 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students participated in group discussions keenly and they were thrilled to compete in reading out as many different expressions as possible.	a. There was no evidence of students who did not attend to the task.

5. Group Experience Story -- Building a FIgure with Some Coloured Rods (1 period)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. The students found it great fun to play with the rods	a. Students started playing with the rods once they received them.
b. They had some difficulty in expressing the poition of the rods in relation to one another.	b. Some groups needed to seek help from the teacher. Others modified their complicated figures in order that they could write the instructions without much difficulty.

Teacher's feeling :
This was an activity mainly for fun and doing something different. If I had provided more input and examples, the result would have been better.

6. Directed Writing -- Return of Students' Writing on "My New School" (1 period)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students were keen to see the teacher for personal consultation on their mistakes.	a. Students lined up to see the teacher when they had finished with their correction work.
b. The idea of decorating their polished writing on a piece of coloured paper was interesting to the students.	b. Students chose the paper with the colour they liked for doing the work. A lot of their drawing were very well done. Samples of their work were collected.

7. Class Experience Story -- The Earthquake (1 period)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students felt a sense of ownership and pride to have their sentences put on the blackboard.	a. "That's my sentence. My name should be put beside it." -- A girl said this after I had written her sentence on the board.
b. Students were not short of ideas and could express them well if vocabulary was provided. They enjoyed the work.	b. Feeling that the students liked the exercise, I said at the end of the lesson, "Let's do some more of such work later." This was responded with a loud "Good" from the students.

Teacher's Feeling :
I was much encouraged to see students' positive response to the exercise and it struck me that students' knowledge of what happened around them and in the world was a good source of experience to make use of.

8. An Inquiry -- An Interview with Upper Form Students (6 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. The students' initial reaction was mixed. They were eager because the idea of interviewing was novel to the students. They were also anxious as the upper form students appeared very knowledgeable to them. Their response to the preparatory lessons was generally good.	a. Students talked about such feelings in their seats when I shared the idea of the activity with them.
b. After the interview, the feedback from the students was that they did not enjoy the interview. The had different negative feelings, such as being scared, embarrassed and bored.	b. Students told the teacher during the feedback session that they were scared because it was the first time they met the upper form students in person. Some felt embarrassed when they could not understand or spell words that the interviewees said. Others felt bored because the interviewees did not have much to say.

c. Students did well in the session when the teacher worked out together with the class a sample of interview report.	c. This lesson was observed by two student-teachers who were having their teaching practice in our school. Their comments after the lesson were that the students were very involved and that I had a quiet control of the class.

Teacher's Feeling :
There was insufficient briefing to the F.6 students. I only made arrangements with their English teacher and expected her to brief the girls. Perhaps I should have talked to the girls myself and prepared them better for the interview. Some sort of ice-breaking activities before the starting the interview would have also helped to warm up the atmosphere and minimize the anxiety created to the students involved.

9. Class Experience Story -- The Royal Visit (1 1/2 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. The class liked the activity.	a. when I showed the class pictures about the Royal couple and suggested writing any experience story about their visit to Hong Kong, the girls exclaimed that they liked it.
b. The girls showed great interests in the outfits of Princess Diana. They were quite capable of describing how she looked.	b. The girls were never short of ideas on this topic. As they had learned how to describe a person not long ago, they had no difficulty with describing the look of Princess Diana.

c. Students needed quite a lot of help with some specific/technical kind of terms. But their absence of knowledge of such vocabulary had not stifle their interest in the task. Negotiation of meaning went on all the way with the help of the teacher and everyone was keen to get the message through rather than focus on grammar and vocabulary.	c. I helped in translating and spelling terms like Edinburgh Square, welcoming ceremony, performed, presented, Governor, jealous, praised. Students did want to learn words which were meaningful to what they wanted to say. For instance, a girl wanted me to help her translate "讚 " in Chinese into English. I put "praised" on the blackboard while another girl suggested "said" in her seat. The majority of the students preferred to use "praised" to make their sentence, saying that the meaning was better carried by the word.

Teacher's Feeling :
This was definitely a topic that interested the girls although the activity was held two weeks after the Royal Visit. The pictures from the newspaper were also very good stimulant for the activity. Students passed around the pictures, looked at them with interest, laughed and talked most happily throughout the lesson.

10. Class Experience Story -- Chinese New Year (1 period)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students showed great interest though some were rather shy and slow in offering ideas.	a. One student commented in her seat that the activity was better than teaching the book. Two or three girls were especially quick in supplying ideas and making sentences. The slower ones tended to mumble single vocabulary items in their seats. All students were looking at the board.

b. Students tended to relate experience story telling with dictation because instead of asking students to study textbook passage for dictation, I asked them to study their own class experience stories.	b. One student commented jokingly from her seat that they should keep the story short in case the story would be used for dictation. I assured the class immediately that I would not set them to study texts that were of unreasonable length and difficulty.

11. Group Experience Story -- An Accident (3 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Not everyone was well prepared to share their own story of an accident with their group members.	a. As I walked around during the group sharing time, I noticed that around 2/3rd of the students had thought about an accident that they had experienced. Some of them even had it written down, but other had nothing to share.
b. In the third lesson, students showed interest in reading the group produced stories on accident. They suggested ways of correcting grammatical mistakes of one another's writings, but they appreciated stories with an interesting content more than one which made less grammatical mistakes.	b. When students were asked to vote for the stories they liked best, the result was quite unanimous. Story F (Appendix 16) was the most popular one followed by story B.
c. Students did value the chance of having their work displayed on the notice board and making their writing folder available in a rack placed in the classroom for others to read.	c. Students complained of losing some of their written work kept in their personal writing folder. I asked if they still liked to keep their folders in the rack for others to read, their answer was positive. They said they liked reading the work of one another. As a result, a girl was nominated to be responsible for looking after the displays and the folder rack.

Teacher's Feeling :
Although some students were not very serious with the work during the group experience story sharing time, the finished work did provide them a chance to compare the approach and content of one another as they wrote about the same topic.

12. Class Experience Story -- Cold Days (1/4 period)

Students'	Evidence
a. Students wanted to record special experiences as their class experience story.	a. The session was a student-initiated one as there was a big drop in temperature in those few days.
b. The most outspoken girl immediately started to voice her ideas when the topic was written on the blackboard. I asked her to raise her hand for before suggesting any ideas and not to dominate the whole story telling. The others were also quick to follow and raised their hands to make suggestions.	
c. Students learned there was nothing wrong or shameful in making mistakes.	c. One girl supplied a sentence which read "The children go to school wear many clothes". As I copied it down onto the blackboard, I asked other students to think about it. The girl sensed that there was something wrong with the sentence and grumbled in her seat that she would not try again. I then explained immediately that everyone should treasure the chance to learn how to express the ideas in their minds clearly. No one was to laugh at a `wrong' sentence. Making mistakes was a natural process in learning and our exercise was to help one another improve our ability to express in writing. Soon, this girl made a second attempt (see d below).

d. Students focussed not only on the structure of a sentence, but also the development of meaning of the whole paragraph.	d. The girl mentioned above suggested putting sentence -- "In the morning, we don't want to get up because the weather is very cold." towards the end of the story. Other girls pointed out immediately that this sentence should make a better sense if it was put earlier in the paragraph. This was what I had in mind, and I was glad that the students saw it themselves.

13. Creative Writing -- A Birthday Party (8 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students had a lot of fun in their group discussion during the preparatory lessons.	a. Two students came to me after the lesson and told me that they liked English lessons. One of them was not feeling well but still came to school because she did not want to miss the English lesson.
b. Students were very involved and they enjoyed the competition.	b. Some girls chose to write about this activity for their experience stories. (See Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D (2), p.6 and p.23.)

c. This was joint activity with Group A of the class. Out of the three sub-groups in my Group, two were very enthusiastic. They had finished their scripts in time and had their duties well shared among themselves. The third sub-group had a lot of fun during the discussion, but they lacked co-operation in the division of work, thus their performance was loose.	c. The result of the competition was that the best two groups in Group B came first and second, and the third prize went to a group in Group A. Miss Lee of Group A commented that the scripts produced by the sub-groups in Group B were more creative. They were not simply standard dialogues in a party as those found in textbooks. (See Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D (2), pp.6-14.) She also said my students were more imaginative, adventurous and lively.

14. Pair Conference -- The Space Museum (non-lesson time)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students were beginning to take the initiative to write about experiences that were unique and meaningful to themselves.	a. The two girls attending the conference had been to the Space Museum. They took the trouble to copy down the names of the different halls and some vocabulary items related to the film they saw there for the pair experience story.
b. Students were also developing their self-confidence to make decisions and to hold a different view from that of the teacher's. They began to have a strong sense of ownership of their own writings.	b. The experience story produced by the two girls was mainly a description about what they saw. I suggested they add in something about their feeling. One said she did not have any special feeling about the visit. The other said she wanted to protect the earth's environment. But they decided not to write anything about their feeling, claiming that is was their own writing. (See Appendix 18 -- "The Best of F.1D (2), P.19.)

15. Class Experience Story -- A Robbery (1 period)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students' responses could be grouped into 3 categories, namely those who had a lot to say (like Kim, Stella and Bessie), those who listened attentively and supplied words when others were stuck (like Fanny and Cherie), and those who were busy copying down the story (like Amy, Vicky and Vivien).	

16. Group Experience Story -- Letter of Advice (2 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students enjoyed the group work. They also sought the teacher's help on ideas and language.	
b. Students enjoyed reading one another group's work. They were able to sense whether a sentence sounded correct, but found it difficult to point out the specific mistakes.	

17. Class Experience Story -- Story Retelling (1 period)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students were attentive as they listened to me, but they did not find the story interesting.	a. Some students commented after listening to the story that it was a rather childish story. I also found myself not very used to the techniques of story telling in a vivid way.

b. Students were rather uneasy when I asked them to retell the story by supplying a sentence each in turn.	b. It took the first girl a very long time to utter the first sentence. With more time to think about the story, the other girls were able to do their jobs better.

Teacher's Feeling

The activity was not successful because of the unsuitable choice of story and the turn-taking way of story retelling. Students were used to telling class experience stories on a voluntary basis that the idea of turn taking in retelling the story was petrifying and not motivating.

18. Class Experience Story -- The School Fun Fair (1 1/2 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. when students were invited to write words relating to the fun fair on the blackboard, there was a long silence at first. Only a few active girls went to the board, and some even opted to write two or three words. Gradually, the others followed and they all provided sensible words.	a. Finally, only two girls were unable to produce any words.
b. As students were asked to make sentences with the words they supplied, they participated keenly and helped to improve one another's sentences.	

Teacher's Feeling :

Students' following-up directed writing were found to tbe quite well written see the one included in "The Best of F.1D (2)" (Appendix 18, P.28). I found the progress of writing from words, to sentences and then to paragraphs quite effective among slow learners.

19. Class Experience Story -- A Special Day (1/4 periods)

Students' Reaction	Evidence
a. Students were so used to the activity that the process went smoothly and ideas were suggested not only by the active ones. Students sounded interested to learn about many new terms in the activity.	

Appendix 26

Raw Data of Questionnaires in the Main Study

- Prestudy Questionnaire (Group B)
- Prestudy Questionnaire (Group A)
- Poststudy Questionnaire (Group B)
- Poststudy Questionnaire (Group A)

Pre-study Questionnaire
The number in the brackets indicates the number of responses from Group B (22 students).

How do you think about English learning?

This questionnaire is set to help your English teacher understand how you think about learning English. Please answer as directed by the instructions and fill in the questionnaire accurately. You DON'T have to put down your name.

Thank you very much for your co-operation!

A. Please answer all the questions by putting a " " in the space next to the answer which is true to you.

1. Date of entry to secondary school:
   Sept. 1988 (4) Sept. 1989 (18) Other Date _____ (please specify)

2. Type of primary school you graduated from:
   Chinese medium (21) English medium (1)

3. How would you describe your father's command of English language?
   None (3) Rather poor (2) Fair (15) Quite good (2) Excellent (0)

4. How would you describe your mother's command of English language?
   None (4) Rather poor (6) Fair (11) Quite good (1) Excellent (0)

5. Do your parents encourage you to learn English well?
   Yes, often (18) Sometimes (3) Hardly ever (1)

6. Do your parents help you with your school work?
   Yes, often (3) Sometimes (12) Hardly ever (7)

7. Do you watch TV programmes shown on the English channel?
   Yes, often (2) Sometimes (17) Hardly ever (3)

8. Do you like to read English story books in your leisure?
   Yes, often (1) Sometimes (12) Hardly ever (9)

9. Do you have any friends whose mother tongue is English?
   Yes (4) No (18)

B. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a " " in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	(0)	(18)	(4)
11. I find English difficult to learn.	(3)	(15)	(4)
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	(5)	(13)	(4)
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	(2)	(16)	(4)
14. I like English lessons.	(3)	(17)	(2)
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	(1)	(19)	(2)
16. I work hard in English.	(5)	(16)	(1)

	Yes	Not Sure	No
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	(4)	(12)	(6)
18. I think I am no good at anything.	(3)	(6)	(13)
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	(1)	(16)	(5)
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	(17)	(4)	(1)
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	(0)	(17)	(5)
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	(3)	(8)	(11)
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	(9)	(9)	(4)
24. I am good at English.	(0)	(15)	(7)
25. I don't know why I learn English.	(0)	(1)	(21)

End of Questionnaire
Thank You !!

Pre-study Questionnaire: Section B

Academic Self-image Scores of Group B (22 respondents)

B. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a "v" in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever	Mean
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	0	18	8	1.2
11. I find English difficult to learn.	0	15	8	1
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	10	13	0	1
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	0	16	8	1.1
14. I like English lessons.	6	17	0	1
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	2	19	0	1
16. I work hard in English.	10	16	0	1.2

	Yes	Not Sure	No	Mean
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	8	12	0	0.9
18. I think I am no good at anything.	0	6	26	1.5
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	0	16	10	1.2
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	34	4	0	1.7
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	0	17	10	1.2
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	6	8	0	0.6
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	18	9	0	1.2
24. I am good at English.	0	15	0	0.7
25. I don't know why I learn English.	0	1	42	2

Pre-study Questionnaire: Section B

Group B

I. Total Mean Scores of Group B's Academic Self-image with respect to the learning of English:

Items	Mean Scores
10	1.2
11	1
15	1
17	0.9
18	1.5
19	1.2
21	1.2
22	0.6
24	0.7
Total:	9.3 (Range of Scores: 0 - 18)

II. Total Mean Scores of Group B's Academic Self-image with respect to Specific Skills in English Use:

Items	Mean Scores
12	1
13	1.1
20	1.7
23	1.2
Total:	5 (Range of Scores: 0 - 8)

III. Mean Scores of Group B's Attitude towards Miscellaneous items about the learning of English:

Items	Mean Scores
14	1
16	1.2
25	2

Pre-study Questionnaire
The number in the brackets indicates the number of responses from Group A (21 students).

How do you think about English learning?

This questionnaire is set to help your English teacher understand how you think about learning English. Please answer as directed by the instructions and fill in the questionnaire accurately. You DON'T have to put down your name.

Thank you very much for your co-operation!

A. Please answer all the questions by putting a " " in the space next to the answer which is true to you.

1. Date of entry to secondary school:
   Sept. 1988 (2) Sept. 1989 (19) Other Date _____
   (please specify)

2. Type of primary school you graduated from:
   Chinese medium (17) English medium (4)

3. How would you describe your father's command of English language?
   None (4) Rather poor (1) Fair (13) Quite good (2) Excellent (1)

4. How would you describe your mother's command of English language?
   None (3) Rather poor (2) Fair (13) Quite good (3) Excellent (0)

5. Do your parents encourage you to learn English well?
   Yes, often (14) Sometimes (5) Hardly ever (2)

6. Do your parents help you with your school work?
   Yes, often (5) Sometimes (10) Hardly ever (6)

7. Do you watch TV programmes shown on the English channel?
   Yes, often (1) Sometimes (16) Hardly ever (4)

8. Do you like to read English story books in your leisure?
   Yes, often (0) Sometimes (7) Hardly ever (14)

9. Do you have any friends whose mother tongue is English?
   Yes (3) No (18)

B. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a " " in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	(0)	(17)	(4)
11. I find English difficult to learn.	(3)	(15)	(3)
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	(2)	(12)	(7)
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	(4)	(13)	(4)
14. I like English lessons.	(6)	(10)	(5)
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	(3)	(13)	(5)
16. I work hard in English.	(7)	(12)	(2)

	Yes	Not Sure	No
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	(1)	(16)	(4)
18. I think I am no good at anything.	(1)	(12)	(8)
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	(3)	(13)	(5)
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	(17)	(4)	(0)
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	(4)	(11)	(6)
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	(2)	(13)	(6)
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	(9)	(8)	(4)
24. I am good at English.	(4)	(10)	(7)
25. I don't know why I learn English.	(1)	(1)	(19)

End of Questionnaire
Thank You !!

Pre-study Questionnaire: Section B

Academic Self-image Scores of Group A (21 respondents)

B. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a "v" in the appropriate space.

		Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever	Mean
10.	I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	0	17	8	1.2
11.	I find English difficult to learn.	0	15	6	1
12.	I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	4	12	0	0.8
13.	I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	0	13	8	1
14.	I like English lessons.	12	10	0	1
15.	When we have English tests, I get good marks.	6	13	0	0.9
16.	I work hard in English.	14	12	0	1.2

		Yes	Not Sure	No	Mean
17.	I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	2	16	0	0.9
18.	I think I am no good at anything.	0	12	16	1.3
19.	My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	0	13	10	1.1
20.	I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	34	4	0	1.8
21.	I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	0	11	12	1.1
22.	I think the English text books are easy for me.	4	13	0	0.8
23.	I can write a short story about myself in English.	18	8	0	1.2
24.	I am good at English.	8	10	0	0.9
25.	I don't know why I learn English.	0	1	38	1.9

Pre-study Questionnaire: Section B

Group A

I. Total Mean Scores of Group A's Academic Self-image with respect to the learning of English:

Items	Mean Scores
10	1.2
11	1
15	0.9
17	0.9
18	1.3
19	1.1
21	1.1
22	0.8
24	0.9
Total:	9.2 (Range of Scores: 0 - 18)

II. Total Mean Scores of Group A's Academic Self-image with respect to Specific Skills in English Use:

Items	Mean Scores
12	0.8
13	1
20	1.8
23	1.2
Total:	4.8 (Range of Scores: 0 - 8)

III. Mean Scores of Group A's Attitude towards miscellaneous items about the learning of English:

Items	Mean Scores
14	1
16	1.2
25	1.9

Post-study Questionnaire
The number in the brackets indicates the number of responses received from Group B (22 students)

How do you think about English learning?

This questionnaire is set to help your English teacher understand how you think about learning English. Please answer as directed by the instructions and fill in the questionnaire accurately. You <u>DON'T</u> have to put down your name.

A. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a " " in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	(2)	(18)	(2)
11. I find English difficult to learn.	(4)	(14)	(4)
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	(4)	(13)	(5)
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	(2)	(15)	(5)
14. I like English lessons.	(8)	(14)	(0)
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	(1)	(11)	(10)
16. I work hard in English.	(0)	(16)	(6)

	Yes	Not Sure	No
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	(4)	(9)	(9)
18. I think I am no good at anything.	(2)	(11)	(9)
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	(2)	(16)	(4)
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	(17)	(5)	(0)
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	(4)	(14)	(4)
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	(3)	(14)	(5)
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	(13)	(8)	(1)

24. I am good at English. (1) (13) (8)

25. I don't know why I learn English. (1) (4) (17)

B. Please give your opinions to the following questions frankly:

1. Do you find the English lessons this year different from your previous English lessons?
If your answer is 'Yes', please write down the differences.

Do you like these differences?

If your answer is'No', do your like the present situation?
Do you wish to have any changes?

2. Do you like English lessons? Yes (9) So-so (13) No (0)

3. Do you find your motivation to learn English raised during this year?

Yes (12) Not sure (7) No (3)

4. How many books have you read for the reading scheme launched this year?

Do you think the reading scheme has motivated you to read more books?
Yes (4) A Little (13) No (4)

What is your opinion to the reading scheme?

End of Questionnaire
Thank You!

Post-study Questionnaire: Section A

Academic Self-image Scores of Group B (22 respondents)

A. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a "v" in the appropriate space.

		Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever	Mean
10.	I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	0	18	4	1
11.	I find English difficult to learn.	0	14	8	1
12.	I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	8	13	0	0.9
13.	I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	0	15	10	1.1
14.	I like English lessons.	16	14	0	1.4
15.	When we have English tests, I get good marks.	2	11	0	0.6
16.	I work hard in English.	0	16	0	0.7

		Yes	Not Sure	No	Mean
17.	I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	8	9	0	0.8
18.	I think I am no good at anything.	0	11	18	1.3
19.	My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	0	16	8	1.1
20.	I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	34	5	0	1.8
21.	I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	0	14	8	1
22.	I think the English text books are easy for me.	6	14	0	0.9
23.	I can write a short story about myself in English.	26	8	0	1.5
24.	I am good at English.	2	13	0	0.7
25.	I don't know why I learn English.	0	4	34	1.7

Post-study Questionnaire: Section A

Group B

I. Total Mean Scores of Group B's Academic Self-image with respect to the learning of English:

Items	Mean Scores
10	1
11	1
15	0.6
17	0.8
18	1.3
19	1.1
21	1
22	0.9
24	0.7
Total:	8.4 (Range of Scores: 0 - 18)

II. Total Mean Scores of Group B's Academic Self-image with respect to Specific Skills in English Use:

Items	Mean Scores
12	0.9
13	1.1
20	1.8
23	1.5
Total:	5.3 (Range of Scores: 0 - 8)

III. Mean Scores of Group B's Attitude towards miscellaneous items about the learning of English:

Items	Mean Scores
14	1.4
16	0.7
25	1.7

Responses of Group B to the following questions in the Post-study Questionnaire.

Total number of questionnaires received: 22

B. Please give your opinions to the following questions frankly:

1. Do you find the English lessons this year different from your previous English lessons?
   If your answer is 'Yes', please write down the differences.
   a. In primary school, we did not 'float' to other classrooms for lessons. We read library books in the playground during library lessons and our oral lesson was taught by a native English teacher.
   b. In primary school, teachers talk in Chinese, but now the English teacher often talks in English, so I sometimes cannot understand her. There is no library lesson before.
   c. Yes. English lessons in the past were conducted in Chinese. There were reader lessons before.
   d. In primary school, the English teacher never used Chinese to help explanation. We were often asked to stand up and read something and would be told off if we did not know how to read it. (The teacher's) handwriting is difficult to read.
   e. In the past, lessons were boring, no new ideas. But now, we sometimes play games and lessons are not boring.
   f. Yes, there are more activities now than before. Lessons are more interesting, less boring.
   g. More fun.
   h. Yes, less boring than before.
   i. It is more fun now. Miss Ma is kind. My previous teachers were not good.
   j. There are many differences. In primary school, English lessons were mainly teaching the text book, spelling new words, dictation and writing. Now, English lessons are fun. Miss Ma used some jokes in her teaching so lessons are more interesting.
   k. more fun, kinder teacher, easier English, lighter atmosphere, more free time, less teaching of textbooks and more teaching of extra-curricular things, library lesson.
   l. More fun, lighter atmosphere, kinder teacher.
   m. Yes, there is much fun in lessons. Teaching is done through activities.
   n. There is a difference because we do not just learn the textbook in English lessons. There is a lot of training in our writing and reading skills which is really helpful.
   o. English lessons this year are not just teaching books. We sometimes do some writing together.
   p. Fewer students in the class helps learning; floating class; individual conference.

q. We have to read more library books and write book reports. We do less homework, but more writing. There is an oral examination. Lessons are fun.
r. Some differences. We can ask questions more readily, but sometimes (lessons are) boring.
s. We have to read more library books. The books are difficult to understand.
t. Not much difference, but it is boring sometimes.
u. No difference.

Do you like these differences?

Types of Response	No. of responses	Differences cited above
Yes, very much	3	j, k, n
Yes	10	b, c, f, g, h, i, l, o, p, r
	1 (?)	a
So so	2	m, q
No	1 (?)	d
	1	s
No response	2	e, t

(?) indicates doubts about the answers as the response does not seem to match the difference cited.

If your answer is'No', do your like the present situation? Do you wish to have any changes?

a. Yes, I like the light atmosphere in the lesson.
b. Yes, but lessons towards the end of term seemed less interesting that lessons last term and in the beginning of this term.
c. Yes, sometimes I like the lessons.
d. Yes, but I hope it can be even more interesting.
e. Yes, but it is better for the teacher to explain what she says in English once again in Chinese.
f. Yes, more activites, easier to learn.
g. The present situation is quite good. The reading scheme has motivated me to read more. For students who did not do their homework, don't stamp on their handbooks. Other methods of punishment should be used.
h. So so. How about teaching some practical English conversation and do more reading comprehension exercise and preposition drills to increase our knowledge of English.
i. So so. I wish there had been more homework during long vacations, e.g. New Year holiday, Easter holiday.
j. I hope there can be more new ideas in the activities.
k. I don't know.

2. Do you like English lessons?
Why?

Types of Response	Number of Response	Reasons Given
Yes	9	- because lessons are fun and have no pressure on us. - because we can learn a foreign language which is useful to our work in future.
So so	13	- Sometimes, English lessons are boring. - Sometimes, when the teacher teaches the textbook, it is not interesting. - Lessons are sometimes boring or interesting. It is better not to teach " " (name of the English textbook). - There is nothing particular for me to like or dislike English lessons. - Lessons are sometimes boring, but sometimes there are games. - We can learn English. - I think English lessons have a lighter atmosphere than other lessons.
No	0	

3. Do you find your interest in learning English motivated during this year?

Yes : 12 Not sure : 7 No : 3

4. How many books have you read for the reading scheme launched this year?

0 - 4	:	0
5 - 9	:	13
10 - 14	:	2
15 - 19	:	3
20 - 24	:	1
more than 24	:	2
no response	:	1 (Answers 'No' in the next question.)

Do you think the reading scheme has motivated you to read more books?
Yes : 4 A Little : 14 No : 4

What is your opinion to the reading scheme?

a. Not much help, time wasting.
b. No good -- one library period per cycle.
c. Reading is time consuming and not much use, because we soon forget what we have read.
d. It is better not to fix the number of books and the title of books to read because this only makes one hate reading English books even more.
e. If we don't understand what we read, we will lose interest in reading. So please buy easier books for us. Some other teachers make students recite book reports. This is not good because we have to spend a long time on it.
f. It is better to set a time limit for one to keep a library book. Some students keep their books for a long time without reading a single word. If there is a time limit, it helps to encourage students to read faster.
g. Give us more titles to select from. Give more awards and add the number of library lessons.
h. Don't use lesson time for reading library books.
i. It is better to have a class librarian.
j. There should be one more library period per cycle. Students should finish reading half a book in two periods. Don't use tests to compare students' performance.
k. I wish we could have more library lessons.

Post-study Questionnaire
The number in the brackets indicates the number of responses received from Group A (15 students)

How do you think about English learning?

This questionnaire is set to help your English teacher understand how you think about learning English. Please answer as directed by the instructions and fill in the questionnaire accurately. You DON'T have to put down your name.

A. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a " " in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	(4)	(10)	(1)
11. I find English difficult to learn.	(4)	(10)	(1)
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	(1)	(4)	(10)
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	(1)	(12)	(2)
14. I like English lessons.	(3)	(11)	(1)
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	(1)	(4)	(10)
16. I work hard in English.	(1)	(13)	(1)
	Yes	Not Sure	No
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	(1)	(6)	(8)
18. I think I am no good at anything.	(4)	(4)	(7)
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	(5)	(9)	(1)
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	(9)	(6)	(0)
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	(5)	(5)	(5)
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	(1)	(6)	(8)
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	(7)	(6)	(2)

24. I am good at English. (1) (3) (11)

25. I don't know why I learn English. (1) (1) (13)

B. Please give your opinions to the following questions frankly:

1. Do you find the English lessons this year different from your previous English lessons?
If your answer is 'Yes', please write down the differences.

Do you like these differences?

If your answer is'No', do your like the present situation?
Do you wish to have any changes?

2. Do you like English lessons? Yes (3) So-so (10) No (0)

3. Do you find your motivation to learn English raised during this year?

Yes (9) Not sure (4) No (0)

4. How many books have you read for the reading scheme launched this year?

Do you think the reading scheme has motivated you to read more books?
Yes (7) A Little (6) No (0)

What is your opinion to the reading scheme?

End of Questionnaire
Thank You!

Post-study Questionnaire: Section A

Academic Self-image Scores of Group A (15 respondents)

A. Indicate your feeling about each of the following statements by putting a "v" in the appropriate space.

	Yes, Often	Some-times	Hardly Ever	Mean
10. I get lots of mistakes in my English assignment.	0	10	2	0.8
11. I find English difficult to learn.	0	10	2	0.8
12. I can read a taught English text aloud fluently.	2	4	0	0.4
13. I find difficulty in understanding the teacher when she speaks in English.	0	12	4	1.1
14. I like English lessons.	6	11	0	1.1
15. When we have English tests, I get good marks.	2	4	0	0.4
16. I work hard in English.	2	13	0	1

	Yes	Not Sure	No	Mean
17. I am quite satisfied with my school work in general.	2	6	0	0.5
18. I think I am no good at anything.	0	4	14	1.2
19. My English teacher thinks I am poor in English.	0	9	2	0.7
20. I can answer simple questions about myself in English.	18	6	0	1.6
21. I don't seem to be able to do anything really well at school.	0	5	10	1
22. I think the English text books are easy for me.	2	6	0	0.5
23. I can write a short story about myself in English.	14	6	0	1.3
24. I am good at English.	2	3	0	0.3
25. I don't know why I learn English.	0	1	26	1.8

Post-study Questionnaire: Section A

Group A

I. Total Mean Scores of Group A's Academic Self-image with respect to the learning of English:

Items	Mean Scores
10	0.8
11	0.8
15	0.4
17	0.5
18	1.2
19	0.7
21	1
22	0.5
24	0.3
Total:	6.2 (Range of Scores: 0 - 18)

II. Total Mean Scores of Group A's Academic Self-image with respect to Specific Skills in English Use:

Items	Mean Scores
12	0.4
13	1.1
20	1.6
23	1.3
Total:	4.4 (Range of Scores: 0 - 8)

III. Mean Scores of Group A's Attitude towards miscellaneous items about the learning of of English:

Items	Mean Scores
14	1.1
16	1
25	1.8

Responses of Group A to the following questions in the Post-study Questionnaire.

Total number of questionnaires received: 15, but Section B of two questionnaires were not completed. Therefore only the responses of 13 questionnaires are tallied below:

B. Please give your opinions to the following questions frankly:

1. Do you find the English lessons this year different from your previous English lessons?
   If your answer is 'Yes', please write down the differences.

   a. Most teaching now is done in English.
   b. The teacher speaks in English most of the time.
   c. The teacher teaches all in English.
   d. Most teachers teach in English.
   e. In the past, we could use Chinese in English lessons. The teacher also talked in Chinese a lot. We did not have to recite passages for dictation.
   f. Compared to my primary school days, I can understand what the teacher says now.
   g. More serious than before. More tests and dictation.
   h. The class splits during English lessons. I think this is very good.
   i. Not only are textbooks taught, but we have to do some worksheets.
   j. No. (4)

Do you like these differences?

Types of Response	No. of responses	Differences cited above
Yes	2	f, h
A little bit	1	e
So so	2	g, i
Not very much	2	a (because I can't understand)
		b
No	2	c, d

If your answer is'No', do your like the present situation? Do you wish to have any changes?

a. The present is very good.
b. I like the present change. I don't want to have a big class.
c. Yes, but I don't like to recite passages for dictation. I prefer to dictate what the teacher reads.
d. No, I wish we stayed in school for shorter hours and

could have more revision time at home.
e. I hope it is not too boring.

2. Do you like English lessons?
Why?

Types of Response	Number of Response	Reasons given
Yes	3	- because I can learn a lot of knowledge in English lessons. Very interesting. - Very happy, very easy.
So so	10	- Sometimes, the teacher tells us jokes so that we do not feel bored.
No	0	

3. Do you find your interest in learning English motivated during this year?

Yes : 9 Not sure : 4 No : 0

4. How many books have you read for the reading scheme launched this year?

0 - 4	:	3
5 - 9	:	4
10 - 14	:	4
no idea	:	1
no response	:	1

Do you think the reading scheme has motivated you to read more books?
Yes : 7 A Little : 6 No : 0

What is your opinion to the reading scheme?

a. Not only can we tell our classmates interesting stories, we can also help to raise each other's interest in reading.
b. It helps partly to increase our knowledge of English, but time is too short.
c. No special opinion. Hope to read more.
d. Nothing special, quite good.
e. I've read more English books than Chinese books this year. I think the scheme is very good.
f. It motivates us to read.
g. Very good. We can learn more English.
h. No comment. (2)

Responses to Questions for the First Interview

1. Which primary school do you come from?

   - 13 students came from the True Light Primary School, i.e. the primary school attached to True Light Middle School of Hong Kong.
   - 1 student came from an English primary school.
   - 8 students came from other Chinese primary schools in the same district.

2. Do you find it hard to cope with the studies in secondary school? Why?

   9 students admitted that they found some difficulties in coping with studies in secondary school. The reasons were:

   a. had difficulty with English -- too many words to learn
   b. weak in English -- could not understand lessons conducted all in English
   c. more English words to learn now -- had to look for meaning of new words all the time
   d. more English used in lessons
   e. more English in secondary school
   f. many books, a lot of English to learn
   g. less time for revision; English words are long, hard to remember
   h. more homework, teachers and friends are different
   i. problem with friends

   Among the remaining 13 students who said they had not much difficulties coping with studies in secondary school, 3 of them did point out that more English was used in their studies then than before.

3. What is the difference, if any, between learning English in primary school and learning English now?

Types of responses	No. of respondents (some students gave more than 1 response)
a. no difference	10
b. more English used in the lesson	5
c. less students in the class (split class)	4
d. learn without using the textbooks	2
e. more teaching of books in primary school, more writing now.	1
f. learn more now	1
g. study more in primary school, more activities now	1
h. teachers were strict and punish students more in primary school, less homework, more lively and happy lessons now	1

Appendix 27b

Responses to Questions for the Second Interview

Responses on the 5 point scale indicate a continuum of preference from the least preferred (1) to no special like or dislike (3) and to the most preferred (5).

	Least Preferred 1	2	3	4	Most Preferred 5
	No. of Responses:				
1. How much do you like these class activities?					
a. listening comprehension	1	1	15	5	0
b. composition writing	0	4	12	5	1
c. group/class experience story telling	2	1	4	12	3
d. reading comprehension (text book)	2	12	7	0	1
e. library lesson	1	1	6	7	7
f. dictation	2	2	8	6	4
g. test	4	5	11	2	0
h. grammar games	1	0	2	7	12
i. grammar exercises	1	3	12	4	2

Additional verbal responses to some of the ratings above:

Item	Rating	Reason
a	4	It is interesting.
	1	The environment (of the listening room) is not good. It wastes time.
b	4	It is not boring.
c	5	It is easy to compose together.
	5	It is interesting to compose together.
	5	It is not boring.
	3	It would have been better if some girls had not been so dominant.
	1	It is difficult for me to think in a short time. I need to think for a few minutes before I can say something. It is better to be slower.

d.	3	It is better to present the text with tape or story.
	2	The texts are often boring.
	2	Dictation often follows the teaching of these texts.
e.	5	I can learn more new words.
	5	I enjoy the freedom in this lesson. (2)
	5	It is not boring at all.
	5	It is fun.
	4	There is a sense of satisfaction when I move up one grade.
	1	A lot of students waste their time talking
f.	5	I often have good results
	4	The dictation passages are not difficult.
i.	5	I can understand things better.

2. How much do you like to read the following materials:

	Least Preferred 1	2	3	4	Most Preferred 5
	No. of Responses:				
a. your own writings	2	8	9	2	1
b. class/group experience stories	2	0	12	5	3
c. library books	2	1	10	5	4
d. textbooks	1	10	8	2	1

Additional verbal responses to some of the ratings above:

Item	Rating	Reason
a	2	I think my writing is not as good as those of the others.
b	5	It is interesting to learn about what others have written.
	4	They are easier and more interesting.
	4	It is interesting to know what others say.
	3	But I am proud of the book produced. (2)
	1	I prefer colourful pictures with big words.
c	4	The library books are easy to read.
	3	I don't fancy reading, no matter who write the text. I don't like too many new words.
	2	It takes more time to read and some are difficult.
d	3	But the pictures in the textbooks are better than those drawn by us in the books produced by ourselves.

3. Do you like using the word bank?

Least Preferred				Most Preferred
1	2	3	4	5
No. of Responses:				
2	6	7	6	1

Additional verbal responses:

Rating	Reason
5	The word bank is useful for me to look for words.
2	I remember only words that I have to use often.
2	I learn the words only when there is individual conference.

4. a. How much do you like conferencing with the teacher?

Least Preferred				Most Preferred
1	2	3	4	5
No. of Responses:				
1	0	11	9	1

Additional verbal responses:

Rating	Reason
1	I don't like to be checked on the word banks .

b. Do you prefer to have an individual or a pair conference? Why?

Individual conference : 7
Reasons: - teacher can know the student more: 1
- not easy to co-operate : 4
- less troublesome : 2

Pair conference : 15
Reasons: - can discuss with partner : 3
- not so frightened : 2
- not so boring : 2
- not so nervous : 2
- better to have a company : 2
- more interesting : 1
- can help each other : 2
- no confidence during individual conference, make more mistakes: 1

5. Do you have any anxiety telling the individual experience stories?

Yes : 3
A little : 9
No : 10

Additional responses:
Yes, I am afraid to be asked questions by the teacher.

6. What do you think of the English lessons? Do you have any suggestions to make?

a. I like activities and group stories.
b. I like class experience story time.
c. I like to write compositions together with others.
d. I like to have more library and class experience story lessons.
e. I like library lessons.
f. I like activities.
g. I like more varieties.
h. I like the varieties in lessons. English lessons are good.
i. I can learn from varieties.
j. English lessons are fun.
k. English is better than other subjects.
l. I don't like the present textbook. It is boring. I prefer more colourful books and sessions for individual students.
m. Students should be more disciplined in experience story telling sessions: e.g. take turns to voice their ideas, put their hands up before saying something.
n. Teacher should be stricter with class discipline.
o. I wish there were more exercises and homework.
p. No special comments : 7